

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 12, 1882.

The Week.

No Speaker of the House of Representatives has ever succeeded in pleasing everybody in the formation of the standing committees. But Mr. Keifer has certainly been more successful than any one of his predecessors that we can remember in decidedly displeasing a large majority of the House over which he presides. While the grumbling of personal disappointment is always heard after the announcement of the committees, there has never been more pointed and more well-founded criticism of a Speaker's action than there is now. The fact is that Mr. Keifer, in making up the committees, has regarded neither the peculiar fitness of certain members for certain duties, nor the courtesies of the House, nor those valuable and time-honored traditions according to which a regular promotion of the older members on the committees takes place. While omitting to make several assignments demanded by every consideration of propriety as well as public interest, he has made others of a decidedly improper character. The composition of the Ways and Means Committee, and of the committees on the Navy and on Naval Expenditures, are of that kind; likewise the treatment of Mr. Kasson, and of some prominent members of the minority, who, in a long course of public service, had acquired certain specific knowledge and experience which would have been of great value in the discussion in the committees of some of the most important questions coming before Congress. Not only the members of the House of Representatives are dissatisfied with the Speaker's work, but the people at large have reason to be so too.

It is no wonder, therefore, that the general discontent should have found a voice in an open protest on the floor of the House, and whatever may be thought of the personal merits or demerits of Mr. Orth, his complaint of unfair treatment will be generally regarded as well founded, and his proposition that henceforth the composition of the committees shall be effected by the House of Representatives itself, instead of being left to the arbitrary discretion of the Speaker, will receive very serious consideration. There never has been any valid reason why so immense a power as the formation of the committees, and thereby an almost decisive influence upon the legislative action of the House, should be entrusted to one man instead of being exercised by the House itself. At first sight it might be thought that the House is too unwieldy a body to accomplish so delicate a task; but in point of fact it is done in the Senate, and the machinery employed there for its accomplishment would work with equal smoothness in a larger body. This machinery is very simple. The members of the majority meet in caucus and appoint a small committee in which all the different shades of the majority are properly represented. That commit-

tee is charged with the duty of preparing a list of the standing committees of the Senate. While preparing this list the committee is accessible to the advice of individual members. It may also consult the minority as to their wishes. When the list is prepared it is reported to the full caucus, and then either accepted as it stands or amended as the caucus may see fit. On the whole, the Committees of the Senate, so formed, give general satisfaction, and there seems to be no reason why the system in which they are made up should not work as well in a body of three hundred as of seventy or eighty members.

The Mormon literature, if we may call it so, grows in volume every day, and will apparently have reached huge proportions by the time Congress comes to deal with polygamy. The *Christian Union* publishes a vigorous unfinished article on the subject from the pen of the late Dr. Bacon, of New Haven, but he did not get further in the way of suggestion than recommending the substitution of absolute for popular government of the Territory of Utah. An illustration at the close seemed to indicate that he meant to argue in favor of treating polygamy as adultery simply, and making adultery a penal offence; and the *Christian Union*, in pointing this out, asks for the treatment of adultery as a crime by all State legislation—the absence of which it considers a serious defect in “our Anglo-Saxon legislation.” It overlooks the fact that adultery is treated as a crime in some States—Massachusetts for instance; but even there prosecutions for it are very rare, although the offence is probably frequent enough. The reason is that it is extremely difficult of proof, even when the husband or wife is eager to prove it, almost impossible when both are determined, as they would be in Utah, to cover it up. It may now be said that thus far public opinion does not go further than asking for the absolute or nearly absolute government of the Territory by United States officers. This is undoubtedly a necessary beginning of any national action against Mormonism, but we are now ready for some account, from those who are familiar with the condition of the Territory and with Mormon habits, of the precise mode in which polygamous households should be broken up, supposing that monogamists have obtained from Congress all the legislation they desire. On this point few except those who live in the Territory can speak with authority. On one matter—and this the most important of all—the feelings of the Mormon women about “the peculiar institution,” the rest of the country is still strangely ignorant.

The plan of solving the Mormon problem by dividing the Territory of Utah between the adjoining State and Territories, brought out in the *Herald* despatches on Friday morning, would be a very good one if the result would necessarily be to leave the annexed Mormons in a minority in each community. The division of the Territory, however, while it would wipe out Utah, would by no means

wipe out the Mormons, or deprive them of their right of locomotion; and even if they were at the outset in a minority in each annexing community, there would be nothing to prevent their moving into any one of them in sufficient numbers to swamp the Gentiles completely, and thus start the “Mormon problem” over again in a new place. Wyoming, for instance, has a population of only 20,000 (partly Mormon already), while there are over 100,000 Mormons in Utah. The Territory of Wyoming is to a small extent adapted to agriculture, and, in fact, it is for this reason that the Mormons have emigrated into it already. The geographical details of the scheme as they appear in the *Herald* are, by the way, a trifle “mixed.” Montana is mentioned as one of the Territories which is to have a part of Utah, but as the nearest part of Montana is a hundred and twenty miles away, and the Territories of Wyoming and Idaho intervene, no such bad luck can happen to that innocent monogamous community.

The letter of the late Postmaster-General James to the President, showing that it was impossible without further legislation to exclude from competition for postal contracts men who had already imposed bogus bonds upon the Government, was sent to Congress on the 6th of January. The letting of a number of contracts was fixed for the 7th. We learn from the *New York Times*, that on the very day that some of the dealers in these straw bonds were arrested, they “were very busy completing bids for Star service to be filed in the Post-office Department before 3 o'clock in the afternoon.” The fraudulent proceedings in making Government contracts, and the impossibility not only of putting a stop to them but even of preventing their continuous repetition by the same men, have long been familiar. Now that the practices have been made so conspicuously ridiculous in these Star-route cases, perhaps the system will be overhauled. Mr. James's letter reached Congress too late to protect the Government in the letting of January 7; but with its facts before them, and in view of Saturday's performances, Senators and Representatives ought not to allow another letting to take place without giving the department power to exclude notorious swindlers from competition.

It is now said, apparently with authority, that the reply of the British Government to Mr. Blaine's second despatch on the subject of the Panama Canal will be that it does not approve the modifications suggested in the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. The negotiations thus far may therefore be summarized as follows: The United States—We propose to take care of the Panama Canal ourselves. Great Britain—You can't, because you have agreed already to let us take care of it with you. The United States—You refer to the Clayton-Bulwer agreement; we will modify it. Great Britain—We won't do anything of the kind. This last reply must be explained by the

unfortunate tone of Mr. Blaine's despatch, his minatory references to the irresistible power of the United States, and the undiplomatic character of his arguments. A conciliatory despatch would have opened the way to further correspondence; but Mr. Blaine left nothing open to England except to say yes or no. There is no way to get rid of the obligations of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty now except to declare the convention entirely obsolete and withdraw from it, on the ground that the treaty contemplated the immediate digging of the canal, that thirty years have elapsed without anything being done, that the relations of the United States to the subject have entirely changed, and that all negotiations to secure a general guarantee of neutrality have broken down.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs has, it is said, begun an investigation into the diplomatic negotiations with regard to the Peruvian troubles, and there is a general desire that the State Department shall produce the whole correspondence. Friends of Mr. Blaine believe that it will show that Mr. Hurlbut not only transgressed instructions, but that he entered into various speculations of an improper character. On the other hand, Mr. Hurlbut's friends "claim" that he did nothing but obey instructions, and that the trouble was that Mr. Blaine first ordered him to support the demands of the Peruvian Company, and later to do nothing at all about the matter. The Peruvian Company, too, thinks that it was badly treated and left in the lurch. According to the *Herald* despatches, "there is no doubt that somebody in authority" attempted to coerce Chili and persuade Peru into a recognition of the Cochet and Landreau claims; that this was done at a time when Peru was prostrated and impoverished, and when the Peruvians were ready to recognize any claims, however monstrous or groundless, if in return they could be assured of the intervention of the United States in their favor against Chili; and that this country was made to play an extremely despicable part in South America, figuring as the agent of claims which Peru had repeatedly rejected as worthless, and which there is no pretence that she would have acknowledged except as payment for our getting Chili off her back." If any such person exists except in the imagination of the various parties to the present somewhat complicated controversy, he ought to be identified and exposed.

The humors of Western life are numerous and varied, and they appear to grow more so. A few weeks since an insolvent banker was held for ten days in the custody of a mob in Kansas, with the penalty of death hanging over him, in order to compel him to make a complete surrender of his assets, and the details of the negotiations between him and his captors were telegraphed to all parts of the Union and read with much interest by the public, and particularly, doubtless, by the Governor of the State. Last week the citizens of Kentucky assembled in thousands along the banks of the Ohio River to witness the very diverting spectacle of the sheriff and his posse, with prisoners in custody, flying on

board one steamer from a mob pursuing in another. The chase, like most stern chases, was a long one, covering ninety miles in all, and the occasion seems to have been highly enjoyed by the crowd, who were summoned by telegraph to see the boats go by. The prisoners were guilty of a very atrocious crime, and the mob came into the town of Ashland ostensibly to see that they had a fair trial, and were much disgusted when they found that the local judges and the sheriff had no confidence in their desire for orderly and just procedure. In passing any national bankruptcy law the Kansas system merits attention. The defect in all bankruptcy legislation is that the penalties and processes provided by it to procure the surrender of the bankrupt's estate are insufficient. There can hardly be a doubt, that if the creditors were permitted to take him into custody and examine him with a rope round his neck, dividends would be much increased.

Elderly Southerners who are in the habit of groaning over the disappearance of the good old times when an insult always led to a fight, must be greatly disgusted with the pacific manner in which the trouble between Mr. Blackburn and General Burbridge seems likely to end. There does not appear to be the remotest chance of a duel, and this is not for lack of language calculated to lead to one, either. In his letter of December 27, Mr. Blackburn said that he had never spoken unkindly of any United States officer, "unless his acts put him beyond the pale of civilized warfare, in the twilight of barbarism, or worse, in the domains of actual crime." In reply to this General Burbridge has written to say that he is not such an officer at all, and that he can prove it by documentary evidence; and that while in Kentucky the only connection he had with the twilight of barbarism or the domains of crime was to punish any outlaws found at large in them. General Burbridge also thinks that Mr. Blackburn ought to have had something to say with regard to "the attempted introduction of clothing infected with the yellow fever into the Northern cities during the war." We venture to predict that Mr. Blackburn will regard this as wholly irrelevant. He has a voice of great carrying power, which he uses to good effect in the House of Representatives, but he seems a peaceable man.

The *Tribune* repeats with much positiveness the story that the Judge-Advocate-General proposes to set aside the finding of the court-martial in the Whittaker case, on the ground that the evidence does not sustain it. It is quite proper, considering the way in which ordinary court-martials are made up, that the President, or Commander-in-Chief, should have the power of overruling their decisions. But the court-martial which tried Whittaker was not an ordinary court-martial. It was a carefully selected one, composed of officers believed to be free from bias either about West Point or colored people, and unusually competent to conduct a judicial inquiry; and the object of so selecting it was to satisfy the public that, whatever disposition was made of the case, it would be one worthy of confi-

dence. If the Judge-Advocate-General, who did not hear the evidence (which included Whittaker's own story), should now set aside the decision, it would show that in his opinion he was competent to try the case in the beginning, and that his judgment, formed in Washington, would have satisfied the public, and that the money spent on the court-martial was wasted—all of which, we venture to say, would be a great mistake. A touch of the comic is given to the story by the assertion that he "deals plainly and fearlessly with the causes which led to the ostracism of Whittaker at the Military Academy," and "has not refrained from criticism of General Schofield's report." But then these things do not affect in any degree the authority of the court-martial. None of its members were at West Point when Whittaker was ostracized, and they were chosen as persons not likely to share General Schofield's opinions. The investigation has left some of the enemies of the Military Academy in a somewhat ridiculous position, but General Swain should not help them to escape from it by anything which seems to bring judicial proceedings into contempt.

A case of much interest to journalists and proprietors of newspapers was decided last month in San Francisco. It was a libel suit brought by the proprietor of the *Evening Bulletin* and *Morning Call*, "both dailies," against Michael De Young, proprietor of the *Chronicle*. The plaintiff alleged that the *Chronicle* charged him with selling the influence of the *Bulletin* and *Call* to the Central Pacific Railroad; that for the sum of about \$30,000 the attitude of these papers changed from severe censure of the company to praise and support of it. Most journalists in this part of the country would regard this as a pretty serious charge. The defendant's counsel took a different view of it, and demurred to the complaint on the ground that the statement was not libellous. The Judge in rendering his decision stated the question presented to the Court to be, "Is it morally or legally wrong for a person to advocate a project, matter, or claim for pecuniary or valuable consideration? If it is, then the action is libellous; otherwise it is not." He disposed of it as follows:

"Talent is as much the capital of the advocate, the lawyer, and the editor as merchandise is of the merchant; he has as much right to sell his talents as the merchant his merchandise. The lawyer, the minister, the parliamentary advocate, the lecturer, the author, sells his talent, and he is not the less respected for so doing. The greater his learning, industry, eloquence, and the esteem in which he is held, the greater his pecuniary compensation. It seems to me that it is no more libellous to accuse one of selling for gain the support and advocacy of his newspaper than it would be to accuse the merchant of selling for gain his merchandise. The demurrer is sustained."

Judge Allen will probably be reversed on appeal, as his view of the matter is a novelty in jurisprudence. That commonly taken is that there is a difference between the sale of journalistic "talent" and legal services or merchandise. There is no objection to a lawyer's retainer, because he appears in court to advocate claims by fair argument, and does not make a pretence of doing anything else. A more exact parallel than that suggested by

Judge Allen would be the sale by the judge, in deciding the case, of his "talent" to one side or the other. A newspaper professes to hold a judicial position with regard to such matters as railroads, and to give unbiased discussion and criticism to the public. Consequently, if it disposes of its talent in the way alleged to have been done by the *Bulletin* and *Call*, it imposes upon the public and commits a fraud. To say that a man is an impostor is libellous, whatever "talent" he may have for sale. Otherwise there would be no reason for half the newspaper "controvery" that we see among our brethren around us. To say of a newspaper that "Jay Gould owns it" or "controls it," far from creating any feeling, would be as indifferent a matter as to say that Jay Gould had bought a hat or retained counsel. And to call a newspaper "venal" would rather be a compliment than a reproach. Judge Allen's decision will hardly stand.

The January disbursements of interest and dividends, including the interest on the public debt, have already lowered the rates on loans 1@2 per cent., and augmented the reserves of the banks. The market for foreign exchange, which was depressed to the point at which gold could be imported, has, with the return of easy money here, advanced so that there is no longer a prospect of gold imports. The trade exchanges between this and foreign countries have now for several months been running in a way which leaves little room for expecting that gold imports will again be renewed on a significant scale. The lesson of the exchanges is rather to prepare for gold exports when the next important foreign movement of specie takes place. The latest returns of the foreign commerce of the whole United States are up to December 1. For the four months preceding that date the merchandise imports exceeded those of the corresponding time of the year before by \$22,460,000, while the exports were \$13,000,000 less; and this reversal of the course which foreign trade has taken since the resumption of specie payments has been as marked at points from which returns could be obtained in the last month as during the four months preceding December 1. At the Stock Exchange there has been an advance in the prices of railroad stocks, mainly because renewed efforts have been made to bring about a settlement of the railroad war. These efforts have not prevented the roads from again reducing rates, so that freight is now taken from Chicago to the seaboard at lower rates than ever. Nevertheless, they have encouraged buying of stocks, because they promise to lead to favorable results, and because the latest reduction in rates is thought to be temporary. The chief movers toward a settlement are foreign bankers, whom some of the railroad managers can hardly afford to oppose, since they represent foreign investment holders of the securities of these companies, as well as a large domestic clientèle.

When Senator Morrill stated so confidently that immigration into this country depended upon the continuance of the protective system, and would cease if that system was relaxed, we doubt if he had glanced over a table giving

the immigration for ten years back. It forms one of the most curious and interesting chapters in the history of immigration into this country from European nations (year ending June 30):

1872.....	351,265	1877.....	105,092
1873.....	394,380	1878.....	100,892
1874.....	361,232	1879.....	133,070
1875.....	181,637	1880.....	347,747
1876.....	120,103	1881.....	550,000

For the year ending June 30, 1881, the total immigration from all parts of the world was 669,431, and we estimate that of this number at least 550,000 came from Europe. Now, according to the Senator's theory, protection must have become very efficient in 1879, 1880, and 1881, and have been relaxed in the previous years; whereas the contrary is the real state of the case. During the depression that followed 1873 the tariff was a heavier burden to carry than it is now, when trade is good and manufacturers are calling for more protection. We know that the Senator does not believe in taking examples from the experience of European nations, but has he noticed the results that followed Bismarck's protective schemes? Emigration increased more than three hundred per cent. in one year. But if emigration and immigration are greatly influenced by protection, why should it work so differently in the two countries?

It seems to be determined by the Gladstone Ministry that they will not begin the work of the coming session of Parliament without having secured the "clôture," or the American previous question, in some shape. One of the Parnellites, O'Donnell, has announced already in the most cynical manner that his group is going to act with the Conservatives, by which he presumably means, not the moderates, led by Sir Stafford Northcote, but the irreconcilables, led by Lord Randolph Churchill and Mr. James Lowther. This means, of course, that they will again try obstruction, on the general ground that everything is fair against Gladstone. The Ministry will, therefore, be compelled to provide harness for them at the very outset, or, in other words, to arm the majority with the power of cutting off debate and bringing on a final vote at any moment, without the restrictions imposed on the application of the existing urgency rules, which requires a two-thirds vote in a house of 300. The temper of the younger English Tories has become curiously like that of the French Bonapartists. They have got to hating the Ministry so vigorously that they almost despise the institutions which it administers. There is a striking resemblance between the Churchill billingsgate and that of Paul de Cassagnac and Cunéo d'Ornano.

The avowed adhesion of Lord Derby to the Liberal party, after three years of what we may call novitiate, cannot but be considered a strong reinforcement for the Gladstone Ministry. What gives his profession of faith most of its importance just now is that he has chosen to make it at the moment when the Liberal policy in Ireland is attacked with great vehemence as hostile to property, if not to social order, and the working of the Land Act in Ireland has been cited with a certain amount of plausibility in support of these charges. The Liberals have made free use of the conti-

nuance of Lord Hartington in the Cabinet as an answer to these attacks. He is the heir of a dukedom and of vast estates, and a man of cold and cautious temper, without a particle of sentimentality or fervor of any kind in his composition, and it is characteristic of the English political mind that his presence in the Ministry should deprive the Tory accounts of the dangers of Radical rule of much of their force. His example, however, is not likely to be of nearly as much value as Lord Derby's conversion. Lord Derby is himself a great landed proprietor. He not only has not abandoned Liberalism, but has come over to it. Moreover, he is a man of even colder temper than Lord Hartington, and ascribes even less political force to sentiment. He has for many years almost made a profession of caution, and has, indeed, pushed it to the verge of hopelessness. He might be pronounced with perfect accuracy the safest politician in England—meaning by that the least sanguine, the most incredulous as to the efficacy of anything new, or as to the usefulness of any species of emotion. His occasional addresses at working-class meetings on such subjects as coöperation, savings, and the land question, could hardly be surpassed as expositions of the philosophy of common sense and worldly prudence, and of the absurdity of getting excited, or, in other words, of the motives which must sway the ordinary Tory mind. There are not many ordinary Tories, however deficient in humor, but must feel it a little ridiculous to be afraid of Gladstone or Chamberlain on social grounds, when the head of the house of Stanley acknowledges that he trusts them.

About Ireland, however—and this perhaps adds to his value as a convert—Lord Derby is not hopeful. He does not believe the Land Act, or any other act, will reconcile Ireland to English rule, but believes it to be good legislation nevertheless. He dislikes all investments which promise quick returns, and he does not think anything can be invested in Ireland in the way of conciliation or reform which will produce quick returns. He would put down the Irish nationalist movement simply by proving its hopelessness, and he would prove its hopelessness in the characteristic English way, by opposing to it immovable, overwhelming, and continuous force. It is probably here that his influence is likely to be injurious. He cites the dealings of the United States with the Confederates as an example of what may be done in suppressing discontent by the unflinching use of superior physical power. But the illustration is not of much value. The Southern rebels, whatever their faults, were men of the same faith and race as their Northern conquerors, and they had that inestimable quality which forms so large a part of the Anglo-Saxon political sense—of readiness to accept the inevitable. The Irish, on the other hand, like all the sentimental races, have shown a capacity for enduring hate, on which the English masterfulness—to which Lord Derby seems still to trust—has for centuries spent itself in vain, and which apparently is as constant as English power is likely to be. This must be overcome, it is plain, by something better than big battalions.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

DOMESTIC.

CONGRESS resumed work on Thursday. The session of both houses on this day was short, and the attendance in the House of Representatives was small. The only interesting feature of the proceedings was the protest of Mr. Orth, of Indiana, against the action of the Speaker in assigning him to certain committees. There has been an unusual amount of dissatisfaction among the members of the House in regard to Mr. Keifer's assignments to the committees, and Mr. Orth's protest met with considerable sympathy. Mr. Orth announced that it was his purpose at an early day to propose a change in the method of selecting committees. He said he considered the present system "emphatically a one-man power, and such power is always dangerous and in conflict with republican government." Mr. Orth then went on to state his own personal grievance. He said in substance that with two exceptions he had represented his constituents in the House for a longer period—twelve years—than any other Republican member; that during that period he had been chairman of some and member of other very important committees; that he considered his assignment by Mr. Keifer to the second place on the Committees on Foreign Affairs and Rules as an injustice to himself and his constituents, and that he respectfully asked the House to excuse him from service as a member of the Committee on Rules.

The debate on Mr. Sherman's Refunding Bill began in the Senate on Monday. Mr. Sherman spoke in support of it, and Messrs. McPherson and Bayard in opposition. Mr. Bayard thought that if the rate of interest on the new bonds were no higher than three per cent., when harder times came any fluctuation might put them below par, which would be a stain on the national credit. In the House the subject of a commercial treaty with Mexico was brought up, and Mr. Whitthorne, of Tennessee, offered a resolution authorizing the President to open negotiations with the Mexican Government upon the subject of such a treaty.

The appointment of ex-Senator Howe as Postmaster-General necessitates the appointment of another delegate to the International Monetary Conference which meets in Paris in April next. This is said to have been one of the principal topics of conversation at the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday.

The President has nominated Mr. Samuel C. Parks, of New Mexico, and Mr. Joseph Bell, of New York, to be Associate Justices of the Supreme Courts of Wyoming and New Mexico respectively.

Justice Gray took his seat on the Supreme Bench for the first time on Monday.

It is understood that Judge Marcus Morton, of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, has been offered, and has accepted, the Chief Justiceship of that court in the place of Judge Gray.

Postmaster-General James surrendered his department to Mr. Howe on Friday. Mr. James has been in office not quite ten months, and during that time has thoroughly reorganized the department. True business principles have been applied everywhere, and the efficiency of the whole department greatly increased. The net reduction in the cost of the Star and Steamboat service from March 1 to December 31 amounted to \$1,439,163. The best illustration of the success of Mr. James's administration, however, is that it is expected that for the quarter ending December 31 the department will have been self-sustaining. The calculations showing the relation of expenses to receipts will not be made for some weeks, but it is believed that they will show that the department now pays its own way.

The witnesses in the Dorsey Star-route case have been summoned to appear before the Grand Jury, in Washington, on the 21st of January.

Reports received at the Post-office Department at Washington indicate that the smallpox is still spreading throughout the country. A letter was received from a postmaster in Pennsylvania, saying that a doctor who is treating a number of cases in the town, persists in calling at the office for his mail matter, and that many of the citizens have informed the Postmaster that they will refuse to receive their mails if these visits are allowed. The Postmaster has been informed that he has no authority to prevent persons from calling for their mails, and that, therefore, the matter must be settled between the citizens and the doctor.

Drs. Cabell and Turner, the president and secretary of the National Board of Health, had a conference with the President on Wednesday, the 4th, in reference to the best methods of providing against an epidemic of smallpox. They presented an address, recommending that all immigrants not recently vaccinated be compelled to undergo that operation, and that quarantine regulations be strictly enforced. The President said that he would consider the matter, and would probably make it the subject of a special message to Congress.

It is said that a strong pressure is being brought to bear upon the President by prominent Republicans and journals of the South, to have Mr. Hunt retained as Secretary of the Navy, the claim being made that he is a "representative Southern Republican in the broadest sense of the word."

In the Guiteau case on Wednesday Mr. Scoville filed an affidavit requesting permission to call nine more witnesses, stating what he expected to prove by their testimony. The Court decided against him in this matter, but permitted him to call witnesses to show that on the day of the shooting Guiteau had claimed to be inspired by God. Mr. J. J. Brooks, chief of the Secret Service division of the Treasury Department, was called to the witness-stand for this purpose, but he swore that Guiteau had not made any such claim to him. A letter, written by the assassin's father in 1875, in which he pronounced his son a fit subject for the lunatic asylum, was read. This finally closed the testimony for the defence. Mr. Davidge then submitted the law points on which the prosecution desired the Court to rule. They were in brief as follows:

First. If the accused, at the time of committing the act, knew the difference between right and wrong in respect to that act, he is responsible.

Second. If the accused knew what he was doing, and that what he was doing was contrary to the law of the land, it is no defence that when he committed the act he really believed that he was carrying out an inspiration of divine origin.

Third. Insanity would constitute a defence if by reason of disease the accused, at the time of committing the act, did not know what he was doing, or did not know that it was contrary to law.

Fourth. The prisoner's claim that his free agency was destroyed, could afford no excuse if he knew what he was doing, and that it was contrary to law.

The court then adjourned until Saturday to give the defence time to prepare their points. In these the defence take the ground that where sanity is in question the prosecution must prove sanity beyond a doubt, and failing this the prisoner must be acquitted. Saturday was occupied by both sides in arguing upon the legal points, and the jury were granted leave to be absent from the courtroom. Guiteau's interruptions on this day were extremely provoking. On Monday the arguments on the law points were continued, Mr. Scoville concluding for the defence. Mr. Scoville and Judge Porter engaged in one or two rather sharp altercations on Saturday and Monday and were mildly rebuked by Judge Cox.

On Tuesday Judge Porter concluded the argument for the prosecution on the law points.

His argument was highly rhetorical, and contained many scathing remarks in regard to Guiteau and his counsel Mr. Scoville. Judge Cox then rendered his decisions on the law points. They bore in the main against the defence. The court then adjourned until Thursday, when the argument to the jury will begin.

At the annual meeting of the Boston Memorial Association, on Wednesday, the executive committee was instructed to collect subscriptions for a statue of President Garfield, to cost not less than \$10,000.

General Fitz-John Porter, who was sentenced by a court-martial in 1863 to be "cashiered and forever disqualified from holding any office of trust or profit under the Government of the United States," has appealed to President Arthur for a rehearing of his case. He accompanies his appeal with a letter from General Grant in which the latter says that he has reviewed the testimony in General Porter's case, and has come to the conclusion that he has done "a gallant and efficient soldier a very great injustice in thought and sometimes in speech." General Grant states in "justification for his injustice" to General Porter that he read his defence in connection with a sketch of the field on which the offences were said to have been committed, which he has since ascertained to have been totally incorrect, as showing the position of the two armies. In conclusion, General Grant asks that the "whole matter be laid before the Attorney-General for his examination and opinion." In addition to this, General Porter has sent to President Arthur a letter from General Terry, in which the latter says that for years he has done General Porter "wrong in thought and sometimes wrong in speech."

A "Territorial-division convention" assembled at Fargo, Dakota, on Wednesday, the 4th, to agitate the division of the Territory at the forty-sixth degree of north latitude, the admission of the southern half as a State, and the northern half as a Territory. There was a large attendance of representatives from the counties, and resolutions were adopted calling for the division "without delay." A number of delegates were appointed to visit Washington and press the matter.

The Republican caucus nominated at Des Moines, Iowa, on Tuesday, James H. Wilson as Senator from that State for the long term, and James W. McDill for the short term. Secretary Kirkwood declined to be a candidate.

A private meeting of citizens was held in Philadelphia on Thursday to start a movement to reorganize the departments of the city government. Their plans are not yet ready to be disclosed to the public, but Mr. Colesbury, the secretary of the organization, said that responsibility, with proper checks and counter-checks, fewer departments, more economy, and greater efficiency, were some of the reforms aimed at.

The "deadlock" in the New York Legislature still continues.

Governors Lowry, of Mississippi, and Foster, of Ohio, were inaugurated on Monday.

A remarkable occurrence took place in Kentucky on Thursday. The three principals in the murder of the Gibbons family at Ashland in that State were put on board a steamer on the Ohio River, which was to convey them to Maysville in order to escape a mob that had assembled at Ashland, presumably with the intention of taking the law into their own hands and lynching the murderers. The mob thereupon seized another steamer and started in pursuit. The chase was an exciting one for a time, but finally the boat conveying the prisoners was met by a detachment of militia, who escorted them in safety to Maysville. Great crowds assembled along the banks of the river to watch the chase, and the excitement is reported to have been intense. The mob afterward held an indignation meeting, at which it was asserted that their object was

to see that the murderers had a fair trial—an assertion which afforded some amusement to outsiders.

On Saturday news was received of the death at Rome of Richard H. Dana, the well-known lawyer and writer. He was born at Cambridge, Mass., in 1815, and early achieved literary distinction by his 'Two Years Before the Mast,' a work describing his voyage as a common sailor to California. In 1868 Mr. Dana ran for Congress in Massachusetts against General B. F. Butler, but was defeated. In 1876 General Grant nominated him as Minister to England, but the Senate refused to ratify the nomination.

On Saturday Edwin W. Stoughton, ex-Minister to Russia, died in New York. Mr. Stoughton was born at Windsor, Vermont, in 1818. He achieved considerable distinction as a lawyer, and for a time was prominent in politics as a warm personal friend and adherent of General Grant. He was appointed Minister to Russia by President Hayes in the fall of 1877. Other deaths of the week have been those of William Harrison Ainsworth, an English writer of fiction; John Cotton Smith, a well-known American clergyman and theologian; John William Draper, an American scientist of distinction, and Clement Comer Clay, who was United States Senator from Alabama before the war and afterward a Confederate Senator. Mr. Clay was one of the most ardent champions in the Senate of the doctrine of State Rights.

FOREIGN.

An imperial rescript, dated January 4, countersigned by Prince Bismarck, has been addressed to the Prussian Ministry. The rescript defines the relations of the Emperor and the Ministers, and reminds the latter that they are the servants of the King and not representatives of Parliament. The Emperor states that it is therefore his will "that in Prussia and also in the legislative bodies of the Empire no doubt shall be allowed to attach to my constitutional right or that of my successors to direct personally the policy of the Government." He goes on to say that he does not wish to restrict the freedom of elections, but that "the functionaries entrusted with the execution of my official acts are bound to support the policy of my Government even at elections," and that he shall expect all officials to hold aloof, at elections, from all agitation against his Government. The rescript is a curt enunciation of Prince Bismarck's ideas of constitutional government in Germany, and is said to have excited a deeper and more universal sensation in the Empire than any event since the parliamentary conflict twenty years ago. The German press is very cautious in commenting upon the decree, but it is very generally disapproved of, and is believed to be the forerunner of a shortly impending crisis. It is said that the rescript will be debated in the Prussian Diet.

It is announced that the Emperor William of Germany has decided to proclaim the Crown Prince Frederick William regent on the 22d of next March, which is the occasion of the Emperor's eighty-fifth birthday.

In a debate in the Reichstag on Monday, on the development of the factory laws, Prince Bismarck said that the Emperor desired to settle the workmen's question during his lifetime; whereupon Herr Richter vehemently attacked Prince Bismarck, reproaching him with dragging the name of the Emperor into the debate whenever a doubtful question was before the House. Bismarck left the Chamber while Herr Richter was speaking.

Prince Bismarck has sent a "courteous but very explicit" note to the Italian Government, stating that, in his opinion, the Pope's independence cannot be regarded as a question for Italian home politics, but should be considered an international question. Prince Bismarck adds that it is his intention to promote a meeting of a congress of the powers for the purpose of making the guarantees of

the independence of the Holy See stronger and more effectual than they are at present, and that Russia, Austria, Germany, England, and Spain favor the holding of the congress as soon as possible.

The Cardinal Archbishop of Rouen has published a letter describing the position of the Pope. He urges the Italians to choose another capital and leave Rome to the Pope in order to avert the necessity of his departure from that city.

It is stated that all arrangements for the departure of the Pope for Malta, in case he deems it impossible for him to remain in Rome, have been completed.

The Prussian Diet has been summoned to meet on January 14. The Government's Ecclesiastical Bill empowers the Prussian Government to provide for a conciliatory administration of the May laws.

The provisions of the Naturalization Treaty with America have been finally extended in their operation all over Germany.

The English and French Consul-Generals at Cairo received from their respective Governments, on Friday, a collective note "explaining in unmistakable terms" that England and France, who placed the Khedive on the throne, are determined to maintain his authority against any attempts to create disorder. The note is said to be directed mainly against Turkish interference in Egypt.

The Egyptian Chamber of Notables are reported to have been elaborating standing orders in which it is proposed to establish ministerial responsibility to the House, except in regard to international obligations. Sherif Pasha delivered a speech dwelling upon the necessity of observing these obligations, which is said to have been "loudly cheered."

A despatch was received from Alexandria on Monday which stated that serious complications had arisen between the Chambers and the European Control in regard to financial measures. Sherif Pasha, the Prime Minister, is supported by the army, and another crisis is deemed probable.

It is said that the results of a recent Turkish mission to Berlin and Vienna have been that the Porte is convinced that although Germany and Austria will not actively aid Turkish policy, they have resolved to maintain the *status quo* in the East. The relations between Austria and the Porte are said to have been greatly improved.

On Thursday evening the Earl of Derby, speaking at the banquet of the Liverpool Reform Club, avowed himself a thorough Liberal. He favored the employment of force in Ireland, and pointing, as an example, to the way in which the United States had dealt with secession, said he did not see why England should show less determination, or have less good fortune in her treatment of the Irish difficulties. Lord Derby's open avowal of his conversion to Liberalism has excited much interest, and is considered a great triumph for the Liberals.

Mr. John Bright and Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, spoke at Birmingham on Wednesday. Mr. Bright justified coercive measures in Ireland on the ground of their absolute necessity, and pointed out that much of the Irish discontent now arose from misconception or ignorance of English liberality. Mr. Chamberlain said that the Government would find means to enable the Land Courts to deal with the cases which were coming before them. He ridiculed the landlords' demand for compensation, and thought the tenants ought rather to be compensated for the excessive rents extracted from them for many years.

The week has been comparatively quiet in Ireland. The number of "suspects" now in prison is said to be 463. Earl Cowper, the Lord Lieutenant, has refused the request of the Dublin corporation, that he grant permission to Messrs. Parnell and Dillon to attend at

the City Hall to receive the freedom of the city conferred on them by the corporation. The followers of Mr. Parnell have decided to call a general meeting of the Irish party in London a week before the opening of Parliament. The Property Defence movement has languished somewhat in England on account of a suspicion of partisan aims in connection with it; but a meeting was held at the Mansion House in London on Friday, at which Mr. Samuel Morley, a Liberal, made a strong appeal against allowing party feeling to have any influence in the matter. He said that if £50,000 could be secured "the work would be finished in half a year."

At a Cabinet council held on Saturday it is said to have been unanimously decided that the state of Ireland rendered it necessary to take additional precautions to bring to justice those persons engaged in supplying arms to the people. The latest form of lawlessness is said to be the organization of "Land-League hunts." Much game has been destroyed, and many preserves damaged in this way. There is an effort being made to obtain Mr. Parnell's release before the opening of Parliament, and the Government is reported to have the matter under consideration.

Messrs. Parnell and Dillon have addressed a letter to the town clerk of Dublin returning thanks to the corporation for the honor conferred on them by presenting them with the freedom of the city. It is stated that the corporation will now ask permission to present the freedom of the city to Messrs. Parnell and Dillon within the prison.

It is understood that the British Cabinet has refused to recognize, as inconsistent with international law in general and the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in particular, the claims of the United States to exercise entire control over the Panama Canal.

Mr. Reclus, head agent of the Panama Canal Company, arrived in Panama on the 28th ultimo, accompanied by two of the most distinguished engineers of the French Polytechnic School. They will at once begin the serious work of excavation, for which preparations are said to be well advanced.

The French Senatorial elections were held on Sunday. Sixty-four Republicans and fifteen Conservatives were elected, the Republicans gaining twenty-two seats.

On the same day, while a procession of 300 persons was proceeding to the Père la-Chaise Cemetery, to commemorate the anniversary of the death of M. Blanqui, some of those in line became "objectionably demonstrative." The police interfered, and a *mêlée* ensued, in which twenty or more persons were wounded and about the same number arrested.

It is stated that notwithstanding the favorable result of the French Senatorial elections, the Government will persevere with the revision of the Constitution. The changes intended with regard to the election of Senators will increase the representation of the large towns, and deprive the Senate of the right of rejecting money bills. The Government will also propose the general-ticket system for the election of members of the Chamber of Deputies.

Mr. Morton, United States Minister to France, gave a state dinner to M. Gambetta and his colleagues on Thursday, at which all the ministers of the Cabinet were present, with the exception of the Ministers of Public Works, War, and Justice.

The revenue received from direct and indirect taxes in France for the year 1881 has exceeded the estimate by 217,000,000 francs.

The editors of eleven Republican newspapers in Madrid have signed a declaration in favor of continuous efforts to establish a Democratic Government. The organs of Señor Castelar have abstained from participating in the movement.

TUESDAY, January 10, 1882.

VIRGINIAN REPUDIATION.

GOVERNOR CAMERON of Virginia has sent in his message to the Mahone Legislature, his chief topic being, as might be expected, the State finances. He whittles down the principal of the debt by dividing the burden with West Virginia, and then takes up the question of interest. He thinks the State ought not to pay more than three per cent., first, because the rate of taxation cannot be increased, and three per cent. is all that can be provided for with certainty; secondly, because "the proposed interest is as great as the average rate paid by the debtor class of the world on public securities at the present day." The financial propositions of the Mahoneites are never very clear, and this is one of the least clear. What is "the debtor class of the world"? And why should it "pay interest on" public securities? It has presumably enough to do to pay the interest on its private securities. Public securities are promises to pay issued by States and nations, and the interest on them is paid by the taxpayers through the Government, and these taxpayers may be members of the debtor class or they may not. No matter to which class they belong, every civilized, proud, and prosperous State holds it to be of the last importance to pay its debts, not in the manner most convenient to itself, but in the manner in which its authorized representatives promised to pay them. The moral obligations of a State about money are, in short, more imperative than those of individuals because they are not legal obligations. A State cannot be made to pay, and therefore a cheating State is always a more repulsive object than a cheating man. When a State is bent on cheating, however, decency requires that none of its high officers should try to justify it by subterfuges and evasions. Governors and other prominent public functionaries should indeed be prohibited, in the act providing for the fraud, from entering on any explanation or defence of it. They should simply announce it, and then leave the newspapers to put a good face on it. Governor Cameron's nonsense about the rate of interest paid by the debtor class on public securities is an example of what comes of attempts at official apology for breaches of public faith.

If he means by "the debtor class" the various states of the world which have debts, what he says about the interest is simply untrue. There is only one state in the world—Great Britain—which pays as low as three per cent. on any portion of its public debt, except by cheating. Several states pay nothing, and he must have made up his average by taking the whole public debts of the world and applying thereto the amount of interest paid by honest governments. But by this process we think he might have made "the average" lower. One per cent., we think, is about as much as is paid on all the existing public debts, taken as a whole. If this process were carried into operation in the treatment of private contracts, the result would be very diverting. A debtor who should come to his creditor and ask for a heavy reduction in the amount of his principal or interest, on the ground that the bankruptcies and defaults which had taken place in the town

during the previous year had lowered the average of what was due by the whole debtor class of the place, would be either a sorry wag or an impudent rogue.

The fact is, that Governor Cameron demands the right for Virginia to pay a rate of interest as low as that paid by the State whose credit stands highest in the world, on the strange ground that what one government has earned by faithful fulfilment of the letter of its obligations may also be claimed by any other government which prefers evading them. This would be more surprising than it is if General Mahone had not expounded to the Union League Club in this city the truly comic doctrine that the rate of interest was always regulated by the means of the debtor, or, in other words, the poorer a State was, the easier the terms on which it could borrow money. Charity obliges us to suppose that General Mahone was on this occasion really as ignorant as he seemed; but his disciples must not abuse the public credulity and imitate him too freely.

One of the Riddleberger bills now before the Virginia Legislature is of itself sufficient to place in its true light before the world the Mahone scheme of repudiation. The coupons of the State bonds issued in 1871 and 1879 were made receivable in payment of the public taxes. An attempt to take away such receivability was foiled by the decisions both of the State and Federal Supreme Courts. The State is, in short, bound to receive them by every law, human and divine. To get rid of this obligation, Riddleberger has devised a scheme which it is hardly too strong to call a "confidence operation." He has concocted and inserted in the preamble of his bill a story that numerous "spurious bonds" and coupons are in circulation; that therefore, when any coupons are offered in payment of taxes, it is necessary to ascertain their genuineness. He then proposes to enact that the tax collector shall accept no coupons in payment of taxes; that he shall accept any coupons only for the purpose of examination, and that the tax shall, in the meantime, be collected in money on pain of distraint. The genuineness of the coupons is then to be ascertained by a regular jury trial in the county court, with its usual expense and delay. If ascertained, they are to be received in payment of the taxes, and the money originally paid refunded, but without any allowance for costs or vexation. The measure is, of course, based on the expectation that in most cases the taxpayer will not take the trouble or will not have the means to begin a suit, and will thus seem to acquiesce in the pretence of the preamble, and in the fraudulent process for which it prepares. It is safe to say that a State in which such schemes are gravely entertained by leading politicians in its Legislature, ought to raise the salaries of its criminal judges, in order to compensate them for the embarrassment they must feel in trying its "confidence men."

The Mahone-Riddleberger system of finance is made to appear all the more remarkable, as an object of Republican support, by the official report of the State Treasurer. From this it seems that the total amount of the State debt, including what the repudiators think both bearable and unbearable, is

\$29,614,793. The interest on this, including both what the repudiators say they cannot pay, and what other people think they can and ought to pay, is \$1,523,516. Of this \$1,117,724 is payable in coupons receivable for taxes, and \$96,695 is to be deducted for bonds held by colleges; so that all the State would have to pay in cash to save its good name would be \$309,096, besides the interest on \$3,565,331 of arrears. The Treasurer reports that the public revenue for the year ending September 30, 1881, was \$2,632,345, and the expenditures were \$2,152,028, leaving in the Treasury an unexpended and unappropriated balance of \$480,317. The Auditor also says in his report:

"I had the pleasure of exhibiting a gratifying degree of improvement and ease in our financial condition in my first report [that for last year]. It is exceedingly gratifying now to be able to report the continuance of this improvement, and to show that our financial condition is better now than it was at the close of the last fiscal year."

It must also be said that there were several items in the disbursements of last year which cannot be called regular and will not recur. In fact, a strict construction of the term "regular expenses" would make the probable surplus applicable to the payment of interest next year \$1,566,023, or \$57,692 more than would be sufficient to satisfy all honest claims, and save the State credit. That the revenue will hereafter steadily grow there is little doubt. Virginia, like the other Southern States, has entered on a career of material prosperity which nothing but the knavery of her politicians can check.

In view of these facts, the Republican support given to the repudiators assumes a much more serious aspect than it would have done were the ability of the State to pay its honest debts open to any question. As the world goes, taxpayers who refuse to submit to actual privation in order to meet the demands of public creditors may find excuses enough both in morals and policy to save their character and self-respect. But taxpayers who refuse to pay over to the State's creditors money which lies in the treasury unappropriated, and is the surplus of a rising revenue in a time of general peace and prosperity, can hardly avoid the conviction that they are cheating, and that outsiders who encourage them in their repudiation are their accessories. In Virginia, too, the colored voters get their political morality largely from Northern sources, and it is very unfortunate that the first striking lesson they receive from that quarter should be the lesson that debtors who cannot be made to pay need not pay unless they please.

We presume there is no question that the Mahone "movement," as it is called, has the merit of overthrowing the Bourbons, and of being likely to spread through the South. But what makes the overthrow of the Bourbons of such supreme importance as to justify encouragement of the grossest form of political immorality, it is hard to see. Even in time of open war, a man is not held justifiable in defrauding his foreign creditors in order to give the money to his country. The creditors of Virginia are not alien enemies; and why they should be robbed in order to split the Democratic vote at the South, it would probably puzzle the most

astute Republican casuist to explain. The present attitude of the Mahonetes is, in fact, very like that of the well-to-do Irish farmers who refuse to pay their rent because Parnell is in jail—an ingenious but somewhat comic mode of giving a fraud on one's creditors the air of resistance to political tyranny. A holder of Virginia bonds or coupons receivable for taxes is, as such, in no way responsible for the weaknesses or follies of the old hide-bound Virginia politicians who "mumble the dry bones of the past," and "turn their backs to the morning sun"; nevertheless, it is now proposed to fine him heavily in order to spread the ideas of the new time.

THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO.

RESOLUTIONS have been introduced in the House by Mr. Whitthorne, of Tennessee, providing for the negotiation of a treaty with Mexico, "with a view to secure protection to the capital, labor, and enterprise which may be invested and employed by the citizens of the United States in the opening and maintaining, under grants already or which may be obtained from said republic, such railway and other commercial lines of communication between the Pacific coast and the boundary line of the United States in and through said republic," etc.

This reads very oddly, and if the Mexicans were sensitive they might consider it very insulting. In all our intercourse with Mexico she is treated not only as an independent but as a civilized state, on an equality with the United States in everything but population and riches. We treat her courts as respectable legal tribunals, and her Government as possessing ample force to execute their decrees and afford sufficient protection to life and property. We have never thought it necessary to insist, as in Turkey, and Egypt, and China, and Japan, and other barbarous or semi-barbarous states, on the exemption of American citizens from the jurisdiction of the Mexican courts, and on the trial of American causes arising in Mexico before our own judicial officers.

The Whitthorne resolutions, however, distinctly point to a departure from this policy, and the relegation of Mexico, in so far as our dealings with her are concerned, to the position of an inferior and semi-barbarous power like Turkey or Morocco. Every government owes protection to "the capital, labor, and enterprise" invested under its own grants, concessions, or charters. In fact, a grant or charter is a promise of protection. A grant which did not promise protection would be very like employment in which a man got no wages and paid his own board, or that celebrated grant under which a man worked his passage in the canal-boat by driving the horses on the tow-path. Those American citizens who have already invested, or have asked the permission of the Mexican Government to invest, their capital in Mexican mines, railroads, or plantations, have by so doing acknowledged the ability of that Government to afford them adequate protection. According to the best accounts, there is no part of Mexico in which life and property are less secure than they are in some parts of the United States—

New Mexico and Arizona, for instance, in which large bodies of European capital are being invested every year. We should take it very ill, however, if France or England or Germany were to propose a treaty binding us to protect that capital. The answer would be that such a treaty would be derogatory to us; that there was as much protection for investments in this country as in any other in regions in which the population was sparse and communication difficult; that those who had made investments knew well the social and political conditions under which they had to be made, and presumably took whatever risks there were in consideration of the high rate of profits they expected; that in any case, however, the United States were not going to negotiate with any foreign power as to the manner in which they would execute their own laws, or as to the kind of laws they would enact; and that the mere proposal of such a negotiation was distinctly unfriendly.

It is quite possible, if not probable, that Mexico will say this or something very like it in answer to any overtures which may be made under the Whitthorne resolutions. The result of such a treaty as is proposed in them would be, if it answered the purpose of its projectors, to give us the right not only to insist on the protection of our citizens in their lawful undertakings on Mexican soil, which we possess already under the law of nations, but to point out the precise means by which such protection should be afforded, or to assist in affording it ourselves. In short, no arrangement of the kind could be made which would not give us the power to prescribe the manner in which the Mexicans should carry on their Government, and the moment this interference began, Mexican independence would begin to crumble. Mexico would be rapidly overrun by the class of speculators who flourished here under the Grant régime, but now find American public opinion and the American courts too strong for them. They would obtain larger and larger "grants" every day, either by corruption or humbug, or a judicious mixture of both, and, knowing that they had the American Government behind them as a means of coercion, would use their power to extort fresh concessions or enlarge old ones; and we should before long find ourselves saddled with the responsibility of protecting life and property all over Mexico.

It is the obvious interest of the American people at present to strengthen and support every South American government which shows vitality and staying power, and particularly the two republics of Chili and Mexico, which probably show more promise in all the arts than any of the others. Nothing is so important to us as a commercial people as to have neighbors whom peace and industry make good customers, without putting us to the expense or responsibility of governing them. We shall have enough to do for fifty years at least in assimilating the population we have already got, and which Europe has still to send us, and in developing the resources of the territory we already occupy, without saddling ourselves with the management of large bodies of Catholic Latins. Our difficulties with the Mormons furnish warning enough

against becoming responsible for the good behavior and happiness of communities which do not coalesce readily with American society as now organized, or which do not take readily to our civilization. We must therefore be wise in time, and let our speculators who go either to Mexico, or Peru, or Chili, or any other South American state plainly understand that they must not look to us for any guarantee beyond what they get from the government to which they owe their grants. Their remedy for the defects of that government they must be presumed to find in the largeness of their profits. Most of them will console themselves in this way. Others will derive comfort from the reflection that weak governments are nearly always easily cheated.

POLITICAL REACTION IN GERMANY.

THE "rescript" addressed by the German Emperor to the Prussian Ministry, which was published at length in the Sunday papers, contains two distinct propositions: 1. That, according to his understanding of the Prussian Constitution, the King personally directs the Government and policy of Prussia, that the Ministers are responsible only to him, and that as to this point the King wants it to be understood "that in Prussia, and also in the legislative bodies of the empire, no doubt will be allowed to attach to his constitutional right or that of his successors." And 2, that, as the Ministers and other officials of the state have taken the oath of loyalty to the King, they are in duty bound to support the policy of the King's Government and to use their official power and influence to that effect at the elections. The first proposition is nothing new in Germany. It is, in fact, the constitutional theory insisted upon in Prussia by the Crown ever since the existence of the present Constitution. It is, as the rescript expresses it, "the monarchical tradition of the country." While this is true, the direct assertion by the King or his spokesmen of the principle involved has always grated harshly upon the feelings of a majority of the Prussian people, and it is always understood as an exhibition of defiant arrogation of power. The second proposition, declaring it the duty of all officials to support the King's policy at the elections, expresses a theory which also has been entertained before in Government circles, without, however, being proclaimed with quite as much cynical directness by the sovereign himself, and also without being generally enforced. That it is now meant to be enforced with the utmost rigor, the tone of the rescript leaves scarcely a doubt. The two propositions together make up probably the most absolutistic proclamation of policy in Germany since 1848. In any country governed on constitutional principles in the English sense, it would be called simply monstrous; it would be equivalent to a *coup d'état*.

The rescript was countersigned by Prince Bismarck, and it may safely be assumed that he wrote it. Why he should have chosen this moment for so significant a step, no election being pending, and what special object he expects to accomplish by it, is a matter of speculation. The protests from the Liberal side in the Reichstag against the dragging of the

Emperor's name into the debates, which was freely resorted to by the spokesmen of the Government, and against the illegal meddling of Government officials with the elections, which the Government tried to defend, may have been the immediate occasion for the Chancellor to emphasize the position he had taken by giving it the form of a personal declaration of the Emperor. But he must have had more important objects in view. Did he want to terrify the Opposition in the Reichstag and the Prussian Chambers, and to win a majority by a policy of intimidation? He can scarcely expect an Opposition that feels the sympathy of the people at its back to be frightened into submission by an act calculated to strengthen that sympathy. Did he mean to intimidate the people with the prospect of an acrimonious conflict, in order thus to influence future elections? He can scarcely have forgotten that when a similar policy was tried before in 1863 the result was a large increase of the Liberal vote at the succeeding elections. Even the Clericals will be alarmed by the defiant tone of the rescript. Situated as they are, they understand the value of constitutional privileges too well to acquiesce willingly in the arrogations of absolute power, and thus the alliance between themselves and the Conservatives may be shaken as to the most vital points by this very act. If the Chancellor had such ends in view, his expectations are, therefore, likely to be disappointed.

There is one phrase in the manifesto, about "the rights of my [the King's] successors to direct personally the policy of the Government," which might be taken to indicate that the rescript was intended to forestall the future policy of the Crown Prince. The Emperor being old, and growing more infirm, the accession of the Crown Prince to the throne cannot be far off. Indeed, it is reported, as we write, that the Emperor is going to proclaim the Crown Prince regent on the 23d of March. The old Emperor was the product of a time in which, in Prussia at least, the divine power of kings had almost the sanctity of a religious dogma. He did not find constitutional government in the English sense congenial to him, because it was entirely outside of his comprehension. The Crown Prince has grown up under an entirely different kind of influences. The discussion of constitutional questions was the order of the day during his early manhood, and his English marriage gave him unusual opportunities to familiarize himself with the working of British institutions. We do not attach absolute confidence to the proverbial liberalism of crown princes, but in this case it would be wonderful if the effect of modern ideas of government were not felt. The Crown Prince would prove a far less sensible man than he is thought to be if he did not abandon some of the extreme pretensions of royalty, although he may, while regent during his father's life, maintain them in point of form. It can scarcely be conceived that he should respect the rescript as the fixed programme of his conduct for his whole reign. The immediate effect of the rescript is likely to be the revival of anti-monarchical tendencies in Germany which had almost completely died out;

and only a speedy change of government and the adoption of a policy in accord with the current ideas of the times can prevent them from gaining ground among a people naturally peaceable and conservative.

OSCAR WILDE.

MR. OSCAR WILDE delivered on Monday at Chickering Hall a lecture, on "The English Renaissance," which might fairly be called a success. In the present days of easily-manufactured notoriety, a young man who has managed to establish a doubt in the minds of the public as to whether he is a profound thinker or an utter fool may be said to be on the high road to a very good substitute for fame, and this is what Mr. Wilde had previous to his lecture succeeded in doing. The difficulty with his future career is likely to be that his lecture solves the doubt, and that he will be unable to keep alive any curiosity on the subject. When we say that he solves the doubt, we mean, of course, that he is a profound thinker; not by any means, to parody a phrase of his own, a thinker of unthought thoughts, but of thoughts thought, and expressed too, for that matter, a great many times before, though not thought or expressed so profoundly as by Mr. Wilde, nor in his own manner. To say that the aesthete is a disciple of Ruskin gives a meagre idea of the chameleon-like power of imitative reproduction which he displays. His hospitable mind has opened its doors to Ruskin, Millais, Holman Hunt, Dante Rossetti, Swinburne, Baudelaire, Gautier, William Morris, Burne Jones, Keats, Wordsworth, Shelley, Walt Whitman, Goethe, and Gilbert and Sullivan. It may seem at first that it would be difficult for even a deep young man to find a common basis for an æsthetic movement in all these; but Mr. Wilde is not only deep enough for this, but far too deep to explain what the common basis is, or what he has to do with it himself. Under these circumstances, and at the risk of violating Mr. Wilde's fundamental maxim of criticism—that the function of the critic is to hold his peace at all times and in all places—we will venture to offer a suggestion or two in explanation of the somewhat mysterious phenomenon presented by Mr. Wilde's lecture tour.

When Mr. Ruskin and the pre-Raphaelites set about reforming public taste in England, they were forced to enter upon something very like a crusade. Almost every canon of art-criticism that existed had to be demolished and its opposite established in its place. Springing up in a community strongly impregnated with moral and religious ideas, it is no wonder that the teachings of the school should have taken a religious tone. Appeals to the love of beauty alone would hardly have aroused the dull British Philistine from his contented, vulgar lethargy. To touch him at all it was necessary to stir his conscience, and the forerunners of the æsthetic movement—who, by the way, were all sincere men and loved art themselves with a semi-religious fervor—became the founders of a proselyting church, a sort of artistic Rock of Ages in the weltering waste of British Philistinism. They brought the pure milk of the word to the heathen, showed him his errors, touched his soul, awoke him to the new life, lifted him out of the mire of sin in which he lay wallowing, and showed him the true path. The unconverted heathen mocked and raged, as the heathen always do, and set up more false gods in the shape of bad pictures, and ridiculed the true faith in the columns of their heathen organ, *Punch*. They could not butcher the apostles, or give them to wild beasts to devour, but they inflicted on them all the social persecution that the mild manners

of modern times permit, by making them have a thoroughly "bad time." This persecution had its natural effect in strongly stimulating the zeal and devotion of the sect; and no one who has given any attention to its writings or teachings can have failed to notice the sacerdotal tone assumed by it—a tone of which there is a faint echo in Mr. Wilde's platitudes and paradoxes, and even in his dimly religious voice.

Everybody knows now how the church spread; how little by little old Philistines were converted and newborn Philistines were baptized into the new faith. The rage of the heathen disappeared, and on every side the galleries of the old religion were cleared of their Philistine rubbish, and swept and garnished to make room for what was purely true and precious in art.

The success of any church in converting the heathen of course puts it in a different attitude toward society from that which it occupies in the days of its adversity. The Philistine, who, though a man of sin, has a good deal of sense, always keeps his eye on the children of light, and is always willing to take his cue from them when he finds it necessary to do so, and when he does do this he does it handsomely. The Philistine is, after all, of the same flesh and blood as the rest of us, though so hopelessly sunk in the mire. After a time he too joined the Church, and so far as fashionable society in England is concerned, it may be said to have been converted for ten years. The connection between the decorative or æsthetic movement, which Mr. Wilde, with delightful impudence, is undertaking to father in this country, and the old pre-Raphaelite crusade is easy enough to trace. It, too, has been completely successful, and is in full possession of the walls, floors, ceilings, and furniture of the "best society" in England, and to a great and increasing extent of the United States. Mr. Wilde, therefore, instead of being, as he represents himself, a missionary preaching art to the heathen in the wilderness, at the sacrifice of fortune, fame, and everything that the Philistine holds most dear, stands to art more in the relation of the fashionable preacher of a "swell" congregation to religion. To compare profane things to sacred, Mr. Wilde is the Charles Honeymann of the religion of which Ruskin was the St. Paul. When Ruskin preached, society was Philistine, but it now forms the congregation. We all know the spirit in which we listen to a fashionable preacher—how we like to hear him denounce sin, and expose the vanity and frivolity of worldly pursuits, the money-loving and commercial spirit of the age, and how true we feel it to be that collections ought to be taken up for the conversion of others. There is the same vagueness too about the articles of Mr. Wilde's faith that there is about those of the Reverend Charles. The æsthetic principles which he announced on Monday at Chickering Hall were a strange jumble, the chief merit of which lay in the serene superiority of the lecturer to the confusion which he produced in the minds of his audience, and which we notice has led one reporter of it to imagine that he said that English æstheticism sprang from the union of Hellenism with the romantic spirit, "as from the marriage of Faust and Helen of Troy sprang the beautiful Lady Euphonia."

Mr. Wilde, again, represented himself as being determined to carry on the warfare of art against Philistinism to the bitter end, but really he brings peace rather than a sword. Art, when first introduced among the Philistines, did lead to an internecine struggle. It introduced discord into every family, set father against son, and mother against daughter. It inspired passions in the simple-minded, barbarous Anglo-Saxon which nothing else but religion and the

study of language had ever produced. But it is easy to see from the reception we have given to Mr. Wilde that he is not an iconoclast, or in any danger of suffering the fate of a martyr. He is, as we have said, spreading the true faith in art, much as a fashionable preacher spreads the true faith in the Gospel. He and his congregation are really all of one mind, but he has the gift of expression, the sweet eloquence which the successful preacher must always have, and he thoroughly appreciates the value of extravagance in attracting attention. He is glad to have even his congregation laugh at him, if they will only join in his prayer to the Steel of Toledo and the Silk of Genoa, or acknowledge the supreme importance of the "gaudy loonine beauty" of the sunflower, and the "precious loveliness" of the lily.

It makes little difference whether Maudie is the caricature of Mr. Wilde or Mr. Wilde a realization of Maudie. It is the doubt which gives reality to both. There is nothing that shows Mr. Wilde in his true light so completely as his great appreciation of Bunthorne. Bunthorne is an impostor, an "aesthetic sham," and his existence every night tends to make the whole aesthetic movement ridiculous. Now, it is very true that all new movements in art or poetry have had their parodists and satirists. But it never occurred to any reformer before Mr. Wilde that it would be a good thing to encourage parody and satire as a means of keeping the ball going. The same manager "runs" the lecture tour of the aesthete and the operative company which heaps ridicule upon him. You hear the true gospel at Chickering Hall, and join the mocking laughter of the heathen at the absurdity of it at the Standard Theatre. We must say that, to our mind, Mr. Gilbert has the best of the joke. Real reformers have usually hated, as only just men can hate, those who sneer at reform. It was left to Mr. Wilde to discover the commercial value of ridicule in the good cause. Mr. Wilde is a poet, a preacher, and a man of the world. As a man of the world, he knows that the true way to attract attention to poetry is to shock people's sense of decency, and the true way for a preacher to become fashionable is to make the Word pleasant and soothing to fashionable people, and that a very good substitute for fame is the notoriety attracted by silliness. Mr. Wilde is an essentially foreign product, and can hardly succeed in this country. What he has to say is not new, and his extravagance is not extravagant enough to amuse the average American audience. His knee-breeches and long hair are good as far as they go; but Bunthorne has really spoiled the public for Wilde.

A CHINESE TRANSLATION OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

A VERY interesting document has just been prepared by a member of the Chinese Legation at Washington, and forwarded by His Excellency Chen Lan Pin to the Foreign Office at Peking as one of the official returns of his Legation. This is no less than a complete translation of the Constitution of the United States into Chinese, accompanied by an elaborate commentary, both by Mr. Tsai Sih Yung, one of the young attachés of the Legation. Mr. Tsai Sih Yung is not over thirty-three years of age, and has been in America for about three years. While in China he took his bachelor's degree in the public examinations at Canton, and is thus a Chinese of the Chinese—one of the literati. He comes of a distinguished family, whose preserved memorial tablets cover a space of more than a thousand years. Mr. Galton might obtain a new argument for the heredity of genius from the fact that one of Mr.

Tsai's ancestors three generations back was Prime Minister of China. This, it need hardly be said, is an unusual honor for a pure Chinese under a Tartar dynasty, and we believe there has been but one other such case.

After gaining his bachelor's degree Mr. Tsai abandoned the high road to promotion open to all the literati, and gave up the career of a scholar pure and simple. He entered the Chinese college of Dr. Martin at Peking, and devoted two years to the study of English. In 1878 he came to America, and while in Washington he formed a friendship with one of the astronomers at the Naval Observatory there, which has led to some results. It was suggested that the time of his official residence in Washington could not be better spent than in acquiring a knowledge of the Constitution of the country to which his Minister was accredited, and accordingly the greater part of a year was devoted by these two gentlemen to a study of the Constitution. Beginning with simple text-books, like Hart's 'Manual,' the ground was gone over several times, and finally Kent and Story were studied and mastered.

After a section was thoroughly understood it was reduced to writing, and any doubts were settled by a reference to professional lawyers who had given special attention to this branch. In this way the translation itself gradually grew. The commentary is the fruit of much conversation, of visits to the Houses of Congress, to the Supreme Court, etc., and specially of an assiduous study by Mr. Tsai of the various functions of the departments of our Government, based on reading, conversation, and personal visits. In the amount of time and labor spent it has been a serious and a delightful task, and too much credit cannot be given to the patience and acuteness with which Mr. Tsai has followed up each question until he reached a solution not only satisfactory to himself but to others.

It is to be remembered that in translating and commenting on principles so foreign to all Chinese ideas as those contained in our Constitution, a familiarity with our entire habit of thinking as a political body is to be first attained. "Liberty" is easy to be found in the dictionary. The associations which cling about the word to an Englishman or to an American need to be well studied to become familiar, or even comprehensible, to a mind trained in Eastern methods of thought. "Duty"—with what difficulty does the Oriental master the inner meaning of Wordsworth's immortal ode! And yet he needs to comprehend it to do his work well. These examples may serve to direct attention to some of the obvious difficulties in the way of making a complete translation. The words, "We, the people," introduce a glaring novelty to an Eastern mind. The whole function of the judiciary is at first a hopeless puzzle. The forms of Congressional procedure, the ordering of the yeas and nays, the counting of a Presidential vote—each phase involves new difficulties. These have been as thoroughly and successfully mastered as was possible in the time, and it is noteworthy that the broad, philosophical principles presented but little difficulty to the acute and scholarly mind trained in a philosophy of another genius. The chief obstacles were found in the details of administration or procedure. There is probably no Oriental now living who possesses so extended and accurate a knowledge of our Constitution as Mr. Tsai, and this knowledge cannot fail to be of capital importance to him in his chosen career.

Of the technical arduousness of translation from the English idiom into one so difficult as the official language of China, this is not the place to speak. It will be best, if not solely, appreciated by those few Chinese scholars who are

able to write the official language correctly. When we say that a lifelong residence in China and a profound study of the language do not give this ability, we are not exaggerating. The title-page of the best-known and most valuable work on China, written by one of our first Chinese scholars, contains an inscription in Chinese characters which at once betrays its foreign authorship. In general, those Chinese who are sufficiently advanced in their own literature to write a Chinese style suitable for such a document have spent far too many of the years of their lives in its attainment to permit of their acquisition of an alien idiom. The translation in question has had the great advantage of an examination by the learned Dr. Williams, of Yale College, who found but two trifling errors in the first draught. These have been corrected, and after repeated revisions the document has been forwarded to Peking under the seal of the Embassy. It cannot fail to be of importance. If for no other reason, its value in giving exact notions of our forms of government to the ruling powers of Chinese diplomacy can hardly be overestimated.

We understand that this labor of love has brought to Mr. Tsai the high title of *Tsien*—a third (highest) degree scholar—and we must congratulate him on the carrying out of an original idea in what seems to be an entirely satisfactory manner.

THE MANSION HOUSE FUND.

LONDON, Dec. 24, 1881.

If one were asked to give an account of the topic which has been uppermost in the public mind this autumn and winter, one would have to reply, parodying the words of the late Emperor of the French, "Ireland, always Ireland." But I do not propose to trouble your readers with any general remarks on this absorbing subject, for there is no new phase to report, nor is any change likely to take place in the policy of the Government. From Mr. Herbert Gladstone, who has been spending some time in the country and has had the best means of observation, we had last week a most discriminating résumé of the state of affairs, which confirms what I think is the opinion of the most reasonable men—viz., that no immediate cure is within the reach of statesmanship, and that we must trust to time and patience to set things right. This conclusion will be very distasteful to the impatient fire-eaters of the London press and Conservative party; but the truth seems to be that what is going on in Ireland is neither more nor less than revolution—a blind uprising, which in its irritation and unreason can only be likened to the revolt of the French peasantry against the *ancien régime*. In speaking of the truth, however, in matters Irish, one must always bear in mind Whately's remark that, whereas in other countries truth is said to lie at the bottom of a well, in Ireland she lies at the bottom of a bog, and, instead of coming up clear and bright, comes up muddy and hardly recognizable. So it may be that our observers are all at fault, and that the solution may be nearer at hand than one expects.

A new turn has lately been given to the question by the determination of the Lord Mayor to invite subscriptions toward a fund for the defence of property in Ireland. The position of the Lord Mayor of London is so peculiar and exceptional that a few words upon it may not be amiss. Individually, the Lord Mayor is generally a business man, of no position in society, who succeeds for a brief year to the chief post in a sort of close corporation, and is comparatively unknown outside the sphere of the City, both before and after his year of office. If he thus, individually,

brings nothing to the office beyond the qualities of business capacity and sound judgment which he may possess, neither does the class from which he springs. City honors do not suggest honors of the highest order; an odor of feasting and turtle seems naturally to attach itself to the name of alderman, and samples of "plain living and high thinking" would generally be looked for somewhere outside the order. But in spite of this the Corporation has a great history and position; it stands at the head of all the municipal corporations in the kingdom, and if it is a privileged body whose privileges will not escape revision in this reforming age, it has rendered from time to time important public services. As is the body, so is its head. Knowing no politics during his year of office, and with prestige and traditions that inspire respect, the Lord Mayor has an unrivalled position for heading a movement into which party considerations do not enter. In matters of charity, for instance, he is able, by opening a subscription list at the Mansion House, to stamp a cause in a way which is sure to secure for it a large amount of popular support. Doubtless the present occupant of the office believed that the occasion for such an appeal presented itself in Ireland; but the ill luck which attends those who meddle in such thorny matters as matters Irish has not escaped him; and the fund which he has opened has become the subject of a keen controversy.

In the first place, it was seized upon by the malcontents of the Conservative party and Irish landlord class—all those who have never forgiven the Land Act, and are clamoring for compensation for their reduced rents—and interpreted as a means of supplementing the laches of the Government, and doing by voluntary agency what the authorities had left undone. The late Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, in a letter published this morning, takes precisely this view—whether to the advantage of the fund is doubtful. Secondly, the expediency of importing English money into the agrarian quarrels between classes in Ireland may well be doubted; at any rate, it would have been infinitely better that such gifts should have been made directly to already existing organizations in Ireland, such as the Property Defence Association, than that they should have been asked for with the ostentatious opening of a central fund, directed mainly against one of the parties to the quarrel. Then comes the further question, How is the money to be spent? In defending property and freedom of contract, says the Lord Mayor, and trust us as to the use made of it. But this is precisely what, in the present divided state of opinion on Irish matters, the public will not do. What guarantee is there that the fund may not be used in facilitating evictions? and if you say, Trust us that the evictions shall be just ones, is there any general agreement, one might ask, as to what evictions are just and what unjust? The known opinions of the majority of those on the Commission give no such guarantee of impartiality, but rather suggest a bias in favor of the suffering landlords against the suffering tenants. That there are many persons brought to ruin by non-receipt of rent is unfortunately too true, and naturally much sympathy is felt in their behalf; but the landlord class generally have taken up the position of "Intransigents"; they repudiate the Land Act altogether, and cry out for compensation, not seeing that, had there been no Land Act at all, so far from getting 75 per cent. of their rents (rents which have come before the Commissioners have been reduced about 25 per cent.), they would not have received a penny, while their highest wisdom would have been to accept the decision of the Commissioners, and reduce their rents accordingly. They have shown

so impracticable a temper that sympathy for them among our Liberals has been greatly chilled. Hence the Mansion House fund is the subject of much controversy, and hangs fire.

Two matters connected with our electoral system are also just now attracting a good deal of attention. One of them is a curious illustration of the mode in which acts of Parliament, even on the most important subjects, are framed. Your readers are aware that the suffrage here is not universal; in the boroughs it is a household suffrage, based theoretically upon the payment of rates, coupled with a lodger franchise, to which occupiers of unfurnished lodgings of the annual value of £10 and upward can lay claim, and to both of these franchises a condition of one year's continuous residence, from July to July, is attached. In the case of householders, their names are entered by the overseers upon the rate-book for parochial purposes, and, as the register of voters is made up from the rate-book, their names appear in it as a matter of course and without trouble on their part. But with lodgers it is different: they have to take the initiative in the matter, and make a special claim to get their names placed on the register. Owing to this additional trouble, and to the constant changes of residence among the working-classes, very little use, comparatively, is made of the lodger franchise. In the large towns the working-classes rarely occupy a whole house; they live in one or two rooms of a house the whole of which is often let out in separate tenements; and the question has arisen, In what capacity are these men to claim the vote? As lodgers, probably the uninitiated would answer. But the point is a knotty one, and has a history. The Reform Bill which Mr. Disraeli brought forward in 1867, and which still in the main governs our franchises, was based upon the principle that those who paid rates should have votes; but in order to carry this out without unduly restricting the suffrage, it was found necessary to abolish the practice which landlords of small houses inhabited by weekly tenants generally adopted, under sanction of an act of Parliament—viz., of compounding for the payment of rates, and to make each occupier pay his rates personally. The change worked so inconveniently that two years afterward the system of compounding was restored. But, in order not to interfere with the way in which the register of voters was made up, it was provided that the occupier's name should be entered upon the rate-book, whether he personally paid the rate or not. The question then arose, In a house let out in tenements, which of the numerous occupiers is to be put down on the rate-book? The act of 1867 had made a dwelling-house include "any part of a house occupied as a separate dwelling and separately rated to the relief of the poor"; but these words had no meaning, nor, while the vote was attached to the actual payer of rates, any importance. But when for the rate-payer was substituted the occupier, and by another amending act—viz., that of 1878—the word "dwelling-house" was made to include any part of a house "when that part is occupied separately as a dwelling," and separate occupation of one part is defined as not to be done away with by reason of joint use of some other part, then the perplexities began. Were the rooms thus occupied such a separate occupation as was contemplated in the acts? If not, what was the meaning of the words in the acts? But if they were, who then were the lodgers to whom the act of 1867 had also given the franchise? These questions, after passing through various legal stages, have now been decided on appeal, and the decision is, that when the landlord resides in the house, letting out part of it only, the occupants are lodgers; when he lets out the

whole, not residing in any part of it, they are householders.

While this decision is generally accepted as the best under the circumstances, the absurdities which it involves are none the less apparent. Suppose, for instance, a landlord resides for a couple of months in the year in one of his houses, is such temporary residence to destroy the right of his tenants to their vote? It seems so; but the judges would probably say that the absurdities are in the acts of Parliament, and not in their decision. Some changes must probably be made, but meantime the attention of the public is rather directed to the political aspects of the decision. A large extension of the franchise has been given in the large towns, much beyond what Parliament seems to have intended, and some of our newspapers of a weak-kneed Liberalism are aghast. But there is no cause for alarm. The new voters will be of exactly the same class as the old; for the landlord who takes a house and lets it out as a speculation is not a bit higher in the social scale than his lessees, and the conditions of residence will shut out the more floating and less desirable section of the population. London mainly will be affected, and that considerably; but nowhere else does the system of living in tenement houses prevail to anything like the extent that it does in the metropolis.

The other matter to which I have alluded is the bribery sentences. The delightful security under which briber and bribee have been accustomed to carry on their operations has been rudely dispelled by a judicial sentence of nine months' imprisonment on two solicitors for bribery and sending in false returns of election expenses; and of terms varying from six to two months on eight other offenders who have been found guilty of bribery, mostly at the last general election. The sentences have given a shock to some people, who have since been actively engaged in stirring up sympathy for the offenders, and have presented numerous signed petitions to the Home Secretary, requesting him to remit the penalties. It must be admitted that our treatment of bribery has not been hitherto satisfactory. The political object of finding out whether corrupt practices have prevailed extensively in any borough has thrown into the shade the other object—viz., that of punishing the offenders; and the disclosures which have been brought to light by the various Commissioners have led to an impunity being given, both actually and in public opinion, to the guilty parties. But with all this, it is difficult to see on what grounds the memorialists can logically take their stand. Because the law has often been evaded, there is no reason why it should not be enforced when it has been proved to have been broken. But I need not trouble you with the *pros* and *cons* which have filled the newspapers of late. The Home Secretary has refused to interfere, and I think his decision will be generally approved. The Liberal party at any rate is in earnest in this matter, and it is hoped that, with its majority in the House of Commons, some effectual mode of dealing with electoral corruption will pass into law. H.

PROGRESS OF REACTION IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, December 21, 1881.

ON Saturday last, December 17, the Reichstag adjourned to January 9. Short as this first half of its session has been, its results are important, for they indicate the direction in which the Chancellor is driving our home policy. To mention first the only victory which the Government has gained—the accession of the hitherto free port of Hamburg to the Zollverein. Not that Hamburg will entirely lose its old position, but the free port will, at an expense of at least

\$50,000,000 to \$60,000,000, be transferred from the eastern to the western bank of the Elbe, and the territorial extent of the new free district is even larger than the ground on which Hamburg stands. Instead of contributing a lump sum toward defraying the expenses of the Imperial Government, the Hamburgers, as members of the Zollverein, will in future pay the same duties and taxes as the other German citizens. That is the only substantial change in the present condition, but whether it is worth so large a sum as above mentioned is a question which it is impossible to answer affirmatively. The majority of the committee of twenty-one members appointed for the purpose of sifting the case would have rejected this needless expense and therewith the whole plan if they had had *res integra* before them; but in last year's diplomatic negotiations the Hamburg Senate and merchants had already yielded their privileges to the outside pressure. They now long for quiet and non-interference, and want a definitive settlement. For this reason the committee will report in favor of the bill although they amended it in some of its minutiae. Thus the final result is certain: the Government's proposal will be accepted in January without much excitement or discussion.

This victory, however, is about compensated by the rejection of the bill creating the *Volks-wirtschaftsrath* (*Conseil Supérieur de Commerce*), which some six months ago had already been defeated by the preceding Reichstag. Bismarck was painfully struck by the small minority, commanding only sixty-nine votes, while its opponents cast 179; he nevertheless declared his intention not to give up his pet measure, but to submit it again and again at every session to the reluctant Reichstag. There is no provision in the German Constitution which can restrain him, although the spirit of a real constitutional government should exclude such anti-constitutional schemes. For the present it is a political and a moral defeat which the Chancellor has suffered, and if he does not change his mind he will see it repeated over and over again. Before the last elections thousands of innocent people were good-natured enough to discover no reaction in the direction of our home policy, but now even the most confident admirers of Bismarck begin to realize the fact that we are in the midst of a most reactionary period.

If any additional proof is required, it would be furnished by the speech which Herr von Puttkamer, the Minister of the Interior and trusted servant of Bismarck, delivered on the 15th instant in the Reichstag, on occasion of the debate on illegally influencing the last election. To characterize it in a few words, it outdid the worst French patterns and outstripped even Louis Napoleon and his Morny in their palmiest days. It was not astonishing that a man like Herr von Puttkamer should use such language; but that he made this speech in the most cynical and frivolous manner before such an audience and with such self-assurance, created a painful surprise. It became apparent from his tone that he was endorsed, not only by Bismarck, but by the old Emperor himself, whose approval he used as a shield. Puttkamer claims the right to employ all his inferior officers for the benefit of the Government candidates, declares all their illegal interference with the election justified by their dependence on the Government, and threatens all those who refuse to follow strictly the ministerial orders and instructions with fines, punishments, and even dismissal. In former times, as in the days of the conflict with Bismarck (1862-1866), the opposing and even radical officers were only threatened with the disfavor of the Minister, or punished by being ejected from a good office to a less favorable one. In the new empire

every officer is expected to exert himself in favor of a Governmental candidate, and to vote for him unconditionally, and for so doing is promised the practical thanks of the Emperor. Puttkamer, in his defence and attacks, forgot the dignity of his position, and degraded the Government by descending into the arena of party strife. The Administration ought not to be a partisan; it should rise above the personal altercations of party animosities. His various remarks therefore perfectly astounded his audience at the time, and the people after their publication, the more so as his opponents were much his superiors in the merits of the debate and in point of eloquence.

Benningssen's short answer was a masterpiece of rhetorical and political argumentation. Professor Mommsen, the historian, whom Puttkamer had drawn into the debate without cause, on account of a remark this learned member had made several months ago at a popular meeting, answered the Minister sharply. The latter, in falsely quoting a remark of Mommsen's on the association of the agrarians and ironmongers, had said: "This gentleman is too prone to speak in a lapidary style; he has taken his models from classical antiquity, but his speech reminds me more of Kleon than of Pericles"; whereupon Mommsen retorted:

"The Minister has said that I have followed Kleon rather than Pericles. I, of course, am far from expecting that he should handle his comparisons from Greek history with the same accomplished elegance to which he has accustomed us in other instances. While, however, as former Minister of Public Instruction, he did not look for a Pericles among Prussian professors, and still less find one, as far as Kleon is concerned I cannot believe that the Minister intended to charge me with the polemics of the representative of the Athenian mob. Herr von Puttkamer further says that I like to speak in a lapidary style. That may be so, but if I had known everything that I have heard to-day in this melancholy debate, my lapidary style would perhaps have become still more lapidary."

Mommsen, let me add here, was chosen in a second election at Coburg, and belongs to the Liberal party, the so-called Secessionists.

During the late elections, as in all former ones, the "Landräthe" were the most reckless agitators for the Government, but their mischief and misdeeds were defended by the Minister in every way. A Landrath, a sort of French sub-prefect, is an administrative and executive officer at the head of a county. This office was created in 1723 by Frederic William I. as a mediator between the country in its relation to the general Government and the King. To make the Landrath more independent of the royal pleasure he was required to possess a manorial estate, and his comparatively small salary was hardly sufficient to cover his office expenses. In the course of time the institution has dwindled down to a sinecure for poor and partly ignorant or even stupid noblemen, or to a transient station for ambitious young officers (*Streber*) of good connections. For the Landrath there in fact exists no law; he does as he pleases, and whenever (and very seldom it is) he is caught in a politically blamable act he falls back on the orders of the Minister, or on the pleasure of His Majesty. All over Prussia there is not a single Liberal Landrath, and every one of them expects to be promoted to the presidency of a whole circuit or even of a province, or one day to become Minister of State. I believe I am not mistaken in estimating that at least two-thirds of all Prussian Ministers have begun their career as Landräthe. We shall never have a constitutional government until this office is entirely abolished, or so much restricted that the Landräthe can do no more harm. While they themselves run as candidates and use the whole Governmental machine to fur-

ther their election, they refrain from no calumny of their Liberal opponents, intimidate the farmer and citizen of small towns, and even exclude the Liberal election advertisements from the county papers. They are seconded by the orthodox Protestant clergy and the gendarmes, who are at their command.

It is of course evident that this wild agitation of the Landräthe and the smaller fry under their orders is encouraged by Bismarck and the official press, for otherwise they would not dare to come out so openly. The Chancellor's inborn hatred of parliamentarism manifests itself too impatiently in his dictatorial longings. He will make war to the knife and may defeat his adversaries here and there, but in the long run he cannot triumph and will succumb to Liberalism, which, with the same energy as in former contests with Bismarck, in and out of Parliament, rouses itself into one united political party. Learning from their adversaries, the Progressists, the Liberals (the so-called Secessionists) and National Liberals at present harmoniously work together. Thus, they are preparing a common bill for the protection of workmen against accidents. All former party quarrels have given way to a feeling of personal responsibility for the maintenance of our political liberties.

The negotiations with Rome are progressing, but still clouded in mystery. Where Herr von Schloezer left off, Dr. Busch, Assistant Secretary of State, has continued. He went to Rome on a so-called pleasure trip, but in fact with express orders to attend to Bismarck's business. The spirit with which the latter meets Roman demands is more than conciliatory, it is even subservient, and meets the Pope more than half way. Leo XIII. having appointed one Herr Kopp bishop of Fulda, the Berlin official organs—the *Provinzial-Correspondenz* marching of course at the head of them—announce his confirmation by the Government with the following comment: "In the interest of our Catholic fellow-citizens we are happy to state that, in consequence of the trusty and confidential advances made by the Roman See, the ordinary administration has been restored in yet another Episcopal seat." Indeed! The Government dispenses the new bishop from taking the oath of obedience required by law, although during the clerico-political conflict he assumed the same attitude toward the Government as all the other Ultramontane priests. The Government in this way makes it possible for the diocese to do away with the stoppage of the bishop's salary, although the position of the clergy toward the laws has not in the least been changed. The Government thus facilitates the filling of an episcopal chair, and its organs attribute this measure to the faithful advances of the Pope. If the mere acceptance of imperial concessions be sufficient to earn official praises, then of course Rome will show herself worthy of them to the greatest extent.

In the meantime the pourparlers and skirmishes between Bismarck and the party of the Centre go on. To-day they coax, to-morrow they fall out; sunshine and rain succeed in their mutual relations. One tries to dupe and outdo the other. In the Hamburg free-port question Windthorst sides with Bismarck, and makes himself as agreeable as possible in coming to his assistance at the head of the Clerical deputies. On the other hand, he introduces into the Reichstag a new bill, abolishing the law of May 4, 1874, which forbids disobedient and removed priests to perform clerical duties and banishes them for contravention. This is a mere feeler, however, and can of course not pass; but it is at the same time directed against the Conservatives to test their assurances of friendship for their Catholic brethren. The Chancellor again tries to arrive at a direct understanding with the Pope by negotiating with

him over the heads of the Centre; but it seems to me as if he were mistaken, and would not succeed in separating master and servant. In short, it is a sad, disgusting, and humiliating spectacle, a mean bargain and traffic, duplicity and falsehood on both sides; and, what is worst, the Chancellor will not only be the loser in this nefarious game if he persists in it, but will at the same time forfeit the last remnant of faith on the part of the Protestant majority.

† † †

MUZZLING THE EGYPTIAN PRESS.

ALEXANDRIA, December 20, 1881.

THE restlessness of the Government on the subject of the press has been manifesting itself in a new Khedivial decree which would lead an unsuspecting reader to imagine that the chief towns in Egypt were in a state of siege, and that the printing-offices were under the strictest surveillance of the military authority. The English newspaper, the *Egyptian Gazette*, is reported to have made a formal protest to the British Consul-General against the new law, as a breach of the Capitulations, which ensure to European residents in the Ottoman dominions the common rights of security to person and property.

According to the new decree, every printer must obtain a special license from the Minister of the Interior, and deposit caution-money to the amount of one hundred pounds. The license can be withdrawn at pleasure. Clandestine printing establishments can be closed, and the owners and occupiers of them fined up to the amount of £150. A printing-house not licensed is to be counted as a clandestine one. Perhaps the most remarkable clause is that which forbids a printer to print any paper whatever, or to sell or publish it, without declaring its nature to the proper authority and depositing five copies of it with the Minister of the Interior. These regulations are enforced by heavy sanctions in the way of seizure, fine, and confiscation. Another serious clause is the seventeenth, which empowers the Minister of the Interior to forbid absolutely the introduction into the country, the circulation, and the sale, of all journals or writings published outside Egypt. All distributors of books, writings, pamphlets, engravings, and lithographs, must be provided with a special license, supplied by the Prefect of Police, or the Provincial Governor, and these licenses can be withdrawn at pleasure by the authorities which granted them. No writing, either in manuscript, in print, engraved or lithographed, except notices issued by the Government, can be placarded in the streets or public places, if it purports to contain any public news.

Those who are familiar with the administrative processes conducted in countries subject even nominally to Oriental, and especially Ottoman, despotic rule, are not daunted by any amount of magniloquent precision in the drawing up of imperious state papers. General instructions as to the sort of thing wanted are supplied by the head of the Government department interested, and some accomplished French, Italian, or Greek scribe does his utmost to evolve the long series of minatory clauses. French draughtsmen, particularly, one of whom especially is credited with the composition of this impressive document, have a good deal of skill in satisfying the Eastern lust for the outward signs of a domination which exists only on paper. The numerous firmans of the Porte, its solemn protestations against acts of European interference, its precise treaty engagements, its innumerable constitutions, are all models of perspicacity and comprehensive codification. Egypt, hitherto, has, through its independent position and bona-fide submission to European influences,

escaped this plague of documentary hypocrisy. In the present case the document itself is of the smallest possible practical importance; not because it says too much, but because it says too little. Where no one, whether native or foreigner, has any constitutional rights, it is superfluous to draw attention to one quarter or another in which the blank is grossly obvious. The only limitations to absolute autocracy in Egypt are the Capitulations, which protect the person and property of Europeans; the Mixed Tribunals, which guard the legal rights of Europeans as against the illegality of natives or the Egyptian Government; and the French and English Control, which furnishes a check on such legislative or executive extravagance as might imperil the continuance of the state of things for which the maintenance of the present Khedive on the throne is supposed to be the best guarantee.

The papers habitually published in Egypt for the use of the several branches of European settlers have long been almost worthless when viewed from an American or English standpoint. The *Égypte* attempted to introduce something like an announcement of real news, and even ventured on independent criticism. The instant result was, as already described, decisive and disastrous. The other papers continue to keep up a mild sort of buzz, and by detailing how a well-known pasha has gone from Cairo to Alexandria, and again has gone from Alexandria to Cairo; by one, or even two, serial novels; by lengthened discourses on the cholera and the cattle-plague; by an active correspondence on the unpunctuality of the railway trains, and even by occasional original poetry of an equally diluted nature with the news, contrive somehow or other to keep up the semblance of European newspapers. The result is that these printed slips serve well enough to occupy a small portion of the twenty minutes' journey from Alexandria to Ramleh, where most of the Europeans have their homes, and all real and serious news comes three times a week by the mail-boats from Europe.

It is supposed in some quarters that the meeting of the "notables" may have important constitutional and political effects. These notables are chosen with a show of representative forms, somewhat in the loose way in which representatives of English counties used to be chosen, at the meeting of the ancient county court, by the freeholders assembled by the sheriff. It is believed, however, by those competent to judge, that on this occasion the notables will seriously address themselves to consider the state of the country, and especially the charges on the national finances. It may be expected that the large sums paid to European officials will come under their criticism; and, if this be so, it will be difficult for the Government to resist an appeal proceeding from so dignified an assembly, where it takes the same form and language as that proceeding from military and religious revolutionaries. The result may be some overt act on the part of the Egyptian Government, which will either imperil the continuance of the European Control in its present form, or the tenure of power of the present Khedive. Writing here from Alexandria, I have no doubt that if occasion arises, the European governments will strongly assert themselves, and maintain the Control with or without the adhesion of the present Khedive. The only question debated here is whether an act of incipient armed intervention would be attended by a popular tumult, and whether England and France would succeed in coöperating in such an emergency. There are many, not merely Englishmen, who hold that while England has interests on behalf of her Indian Empire wholly out of

proportion to any interests of France, France has tied her hands by her encroachments in Tunis. The consequence anticipated is that in the event of a serious need arising for the preservation of order in Egypt, the task of intervention will fall mainly on England. At the public banquet given last week to Mr. Charles Cookson, C. B., the Consul and Judge here, who had just been created a Companion of the Bath in recognition of his services at the time of the *émeute* in September last, the captain of the English man-of-war now in the harbor (the *Iris*) asserted that while British men-of-war were despatched less frequently to Alexandria than elsewhere, there was no port to which their crews and officers sailed with so much eagerness.

A.

Correspondence.

CLASSICAL AND NON-CLASSICAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article in last week's *Nation* on "Classical and Non-Classical" gives rise to fresh consideration of an old problem which has called forth from the opposite camps a good deal of animosity. In connection with the report which expresses the experience and observation of such a weighty body as the Faculty of the University of Berlin, which necessarily deserves serious attention, I think that a few facts must be borne in mind before conclusive judgment is pronounced about the advantages of a classical education over the scientific. I mean to call attention to the merely relative value of this report—relating solely to the peculiar position of German real-schools and gymnasia to the universities, but not necessarily to all schools in general. Complaint is made of a certain *Blasiertheit* of the students from the real-schools, and of disappointing results from the latter, who in the beginning of their career promised a better development. These two facts are readily understood if we consider the peculiar character of the real-school instruction. These schools are frequented not only by men who wish to devote themselves to science, in which wider instruction is given there than in the gymnasium, but also by the great mass of future business men, who go there simply for a so-called liberal education. It is true, this is not the case exclusively; but the number of future business men in the real-schools is vastly greater than in the gymnasia, and also naturally much greater than the number of future scientists in the real-schools. The instruction is adapted to the greatest demand. Modern languages are taught to the neglect of Latin (Greek, I believe, is never taught), with an eye to practical use. The natural sciences are taken up earlier and carried further than at the gymnasium; and this very fact explains the *Blasiertheit* of the real-school student when he arrives at university instruction. He is far ahead of the student from the gymnasium in knowing many facts in physics, chemistry, and botany; and the instruction at the university, beginning necessarily with the most elementary principles again, does not come to him as fresh as to his comrades from the gymnasium, and does not impress him as much. He seems to know it all, appears *blasiert*, and does not give from the beginning his undivided enthusiasm to the subject which the other gives, who, with the additional fine training from the gymnasium, is soon carried up and beyond the real-school student. The instruction which the latter received in the natural sciences answered very well for a so-called liberal education, and is of a grade about equal to that of elementary courses in our colleges—"informing" the scholars very well,

but far from teaching independent work and scientific methods. Laboratory practice is rarely given.

It is palpable that such instruction cannot equal the mental discipline which is instilled by the thorough methods of classical training at the gymnasium; and hence the real-school student, although starting with a better knowledge, but not scientific, is in the end outdone by the finer training of the classical student. The report, then, seems to point rather to a deficiency in the real-school system than to an inferiority of the training to be derived from an early study of the natural sciences. Classical study is old, and has tempered, tested, and retempered its methods, while the study of the natural sciences is young, and, even at that, its methods hardly receive a fair test at the real-schools. Hence, although the report of the Faculty may express precisely the result of this ten years' experiment in regard to the admission of these students, and although it may be for the best interests of the University to call for a revocation of the fiat of the Government in opening the halls of the University, yet it does not prove that the future scientist must go for years out of his line to acquire training.

A. L. K. VOLEMANN.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Dec. 20, 1881.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to say a few words in your excellent paper concerning your editorial account, in the *Nation* for December 22, of a recent action by the Philosophical Faculty of Berlin University? In using the terms "Classical and Non-Classical Training for the Higher Education" for the title of your account, it seems to me that you, in a measure, misstate the question at issue. The Berlin University admits only such graduates of colleges as have had a considerable degree of "classical education," if by this is meant training in Latin and other languages. The difference between the graduates consists only in this, that Greek is omitted in the one and some scientific studies and modern languages in the other. In so far as the Faculty claim that the classical schools do better work in preparing students than the real-schools, they mean that the omission of Greek disqualifies the one class and qualifies the other to the degree indicated.

But it should be noticed, in a fair and impartial study of the subject, that it is claimed by prominent advocates of the real-school that the true reason of the relative inferiority of the real-school graduates is one that has nothing to do with the omission of the Greek from the curriculum. It is claimed, and I can myself testify that the claim is well founded, that as a consequence of a general and, until recently, all but unquestioned belief in the absolute perfection of the gymnasium, or "Latin and Greek" school, parents have, as a rule, sent their smartest sons to the latter school, and the inferior grade to the real-schools. The common belief that Latin and Greek are more difficult than modern languages, explains this prejudice. The manner of instruction in such languages being generally lax and incompetent, because given by teachers who are not specialists, and also because sufficient time is not allowed for it, one need not wonder that the less rigorous and systematized efforts produce less desirable results. It must also be noticed that the real-schools have some defects which time alone can rectify. At present too many things are taught, and there are not enough teachers who are competent in the same sense in which the gymnasium teachers are competent—that is, by thoroughness in a limited field.

These reasons, it seems to me, should be well

considered by those who wish to form a fair judgment of the relative merits of the two classes of preparatory schools. Perhaps such a consideration would lead many to conclude that "the most powerful plea ever made in behalf of classical studies" is apt to meet sooner or later with a no less powerful counterplea in behalf of the studies of the real-school, provided the latter succeeds in carrying out the reforms its most competent advocates recommend, and, particularly, in removing the prejudice that has hitherto sent the best material to the gymnasium, reserving the poorest for the real-school.

Very respectfully, C. A. EGGERT.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, IOWA CITY,
January 6, 1882.

LAW-MAKING BY COMMISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While nothing in Federal politics is more indisputable than the urgent need of prompt and systematic reconstruction of the tariff, there are serious objections to the method of doing it by means of an extra-Congressional Commission. If appointed by the President, then, so far as it acts, the result is to that extent legislative work prepared or performed by the Executive. But no matter by whom appointed, the Constitution of the United States has expressly provided for such purposes a representative commission chosen directly, frequently, and territorially by the people. If the Constitution be wrong, then it should be amended directly, but not by implication. If any Congressmen, after availing themselves, as usual, of expert or other testimony *ad libitum*, feel incompetent to vote upon a public question affecting the interests of every one of their constituents, they should not have accepted legislative responsibilities, or, having done so inadvertently, they should resign. To admit incompetence by voting the work upon an outside body not chosen by or responsible to the people, while still holding to their seats, would seem to amount rather to official infidelity than mere political humility. Again, the evil is constant and the necessity immediate. The present patched and incongruous tariff, expensive as it is to execute, is still more difficult of intelligible construction. The jumble of *specific* and *ad-valorem* duties, often mixed and duplicated on the same article, as special legislation or amendments could be got, requires judicial qualities in every responsible official. It has destroyed our shipping, almost abolished the export of American labor in the form of manufactured articles, is pressing upon agriculture, the basis of all interests, and is injuriously affecting many of the manufacturers and all of their consuming operatives.

What the country wants is not the opinion of the President, expressed through a body of his own selection, that the present tariff presses unequally on different industries and sections, because we know that already. The late tariff convention, mostly composed of or representing persons pecuniarily interested in high duties, themselves admitted it, and no well-informed publicist of any shade of opinion now denies it. No speedy relief can come from a commission. Such a body, unless omniscient, must inform itself by testimony that is equally open to Congressional committees, and we must patriotically suppose that their process of perfecting suitable legislation would not be quicker or more effectual than the action of those law-making and political experts upon whom the Constitution and people of the United States have specially devolved the duty.

Relief to some extent might be immediately obtained by some preliminary legislation, without waiting for a complete, well-digested, and final act. After the "fostering" of twenty years of high protection, there must be some

limit to the necessity of future protection. Since the last Treasury report shows that the whole duties amounted to forty-three per cent. of the whole imports, such limit might be assumed at forty per cent. It would then be safe to enact immediately a law to take effect after, say, six months, providing that no import duty, whether *specific* or *ad valorem*, or both, should exceed the maximum amount of forty per cent. on cost, and that any excess over that rate now chargeable by existing law should be deducted by the Collector.

Such a measure would give temporary and saving relief to some interests that are being squeezed to death, like the shipping trade. But whether by independent enactment, or not, no such procrastinating contrivance as an extra-Congressional and extra-legal commission should be accepted or tolerated by the friends of personal and commercial freedom, unless in the same act its advocates will give earnest of their intentions by some immediate clipping of the enormous, complicated, and unintelligible import duties, which, surviving the necessities of a great war, are now imposed, and, like all redundant taxation, are to a considerable extent squandered.

I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, January 5, 1882.

THE PRIMARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If the nominating system be changed, so as to have the nominations made at an election occurring in the daytime, and managed, to a considerable extent, as a regular election, how long before you would have half a dozen primaries where you now have one? The friends of the Machine would want to run no risk, and would deem it necessary to hold a caucus to unite themselves firmly. And the Opposition, if they expected to make a successful resistance, would need beforehand to unite on one person, which could hardly be satisfactorily accomplished without a caucus.

In making the nominations for the minor State offices, there could not be expected a very full vote from "the better element"; they show little enough activity at the regular elections, and would certainly show less in making the nominations, whereas the bosses are in train for any and every office.

Would they not fare as well as ever?

C. G. WILLIAMS.

GESTAVUS, O., Jan. 2, 1882.

[Yes; but no matter how many caucuses they held, their action would not be final. The voters who did not attend the caucus would still have their say. What difference would it make, for instance, in this city what nominations the 13,000 comprising the district associations made, if it were in the power of the 40,000 or 50,000 Republican voters who do not belong to these associations to make other nominations at the poll? The reason why bosses value the caucus so much now, and make such elaborate arrangements for fixing it, is, in short, that when it has spoken, the mouths of all others are closed, unless they choose to go to the trouble and expense of organizing a public bolt. Besides this, if the caucus knew that the outsiders had an easy remedy in case they did not approve its action, assuredly its nominations would be carefully made with reference to the tastes and opinions of the bulk of the party; in other words, the Jakes, Mikes, Barneys, and Guses would be dropped.—ED. NATION.]

UNSECTARIAN ETHICS IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A number of citizens of Chicago have recently submitted a petition to the Board of Education of this city, asking that instruction in unsectarian ethics be given in all grades of the public schools here.

The subject is, no doubt, of high importance. Intellectual culture must be supplemented by moral culture. Intellectual culture alone, if not controlled by moral principles, is liable to become a curse instead of a blessing. But have state authorities or communal authorities the right to provide the means for moral culture to go beyond providing for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic? We claim that they have, and we add that not only have they the right, but it is their duty to train the future citizen in good morals. This duty, however, is far too much neglected. Our schools suffer under the great fault that they pay too little attention to the education of the children, and lay all their stress upon instruction—upon instruction in so-called practical branches of study. "Utility" is the name of the guiding-star which directs the course of the majority of our schools. But vulgar utility ought not to be the chief end and object of the schools. They have not fulfilled their great and holy mission when they produce good arithmeticians, efficient bookkeepers, smart business men. They have not come up to their ideal height if they consider it their main aim and purpose so to bring up our youth that they may successfully run along in the race after riches. Our schools ought to strive after higher ideals. They should be among the most potential factors for elevating the nation to a higher plane of morality. The too materialistic character of our schools should be counterbalanced by introducing into them a number of studies such that, even if they be without any visible and measurable value in practical life, they will yet have the tendency and potency to ennoble the heart, to refine the sentiments, to purify the will, and to give to life a higher turn altogether.

A systematic and regular course in unsectarian ethics would be a great help to this end, while casual, well-meant remarks by the teacher would be of no particular educational value.

It is not difficult to grade properly the rich material of undenominational ethics. In the lower grades already it is possible to give instructive, impressive, and attractive lessons to the children on their duties toward their parents, teachers, schoolmates, toward older people, and so forth. In the next higher grade their hearts might be impressed with the duties of employers toward their employees, and of employees toward their employers, with the mutual relations of members of a family, with the duties of the citizen toward the State and the Government, etc. In another grade the children might be taught, to their mental and moral benefit, that while the ambition to raise one's self and to ameliorate the conditions of his life is praiseworthy, yet it becomes every person, under unalterable circumstances, to be satisfied with and reconciled to his station in life; that man ought to be just and honest in all his actions, true and reliable in all his utterances, faithful and diligent in whatever he is obliged to do, charitable and kind to those who are in need, etc. The character of the children might also receive a proper and lasting direction by showing them the moral beauty of having order in all things, of being temperate in various ways, of withstanding manfully all temptations to do wrong, etc. In the next grade the pupils might be advanced enough to pursue a systematized course of ethics, and now would be the proper time to generalize, and to define such

conceptions as virtue and vice, equanimity and passion, good and evil, true and untrue, egoism and altruism, and so forth. For the highest grade of our schools we would recommend instruction in empirical psychology, analyzing of characters of men as they appear in every-day life, in history, and in fiction; and, no doubt, such instruction would be of the greatest advantage, intellectually and morally, to the pupils attending our schools.

In imparting such lessons it would be well for the theoretical instruction to be supported and illustrated by stories and examples, which would make these lessons doubly interesting and attractive to the children. In connection therewith, classical sentences and aphorisms, full of true wisdom, and sayings and verses from the poets and other great master minds of all ages and nations would have to be explained to and memorized by the children. Their spiritual horizon would thus become greatly widened, and in their youthful days they would gather in a mental store of excellent wise sayings, which, in their advanced years, would be for them an invaluable, refreshing source of joy and happiness, and, possibly, a quickening power for a noble conduct of life.

Some may now admit systematic ethical instruction to be a most important, nay, a most urgent reform in our national system of education. Yet they may say, Where can the time be found for this new study? Our children are already overburdened. They are overburdened. Take off, then, those horrid, stupefying drills in spelling—in spelling even rarely used Greek and Latin words; diminish the useless stuff of geographical and historical details, of names and dates and numbers which the children have to cram into their minds; aim for mental development, and avoid pernicious one-sided cultivation of the memory; and then sufficient time will be found for ethical instruction. And ethical instruction will prove to be a means of ethical education.—Respectfully,
B. F.
CHICAGO December 23, 1881.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press a series entitled "Science Ladders," edited by N. D'Anvers, and to be fully illustrated; a new edition of Crawford's 'Portugal'; 'Morocco and its People,' by Edmondo de Amicis; 'Garfield's Place in History,' by Henry C. Pedder; 'A History of the Naval War of 1812,' by Theodore Roosevelt; 'The Geological and Mineralogical Resources of the James River Valley of Virginia,' by J. L. Campbell; and 'Pen Pictures of Authors,' by William Shepard.—Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have in preparation a very full index to Hawthorne's complete works, uniform in size both with the Library edition of them and with the Little Classic.—I. K. Funk & Co. are about to reprint, with the author's consent, Spurgeon's 'Treasury of David,' in six octavo volumes.—'Salaminia (Cyprus): its History, Treasures, and Antiquities,' by Alexander Palma di Cesnola, illustrated with more than two hundred woodcuts, is announced by Trübner & Co., London. It will be a pity, by the way, if General di Cesnola's splendidly illustrated work on his own collection of Cypriote antiquities is to lack, as is rumored, the promised Introduction by Professor Sidney Colvin.—The *Monograph*, "a serial collection of indexed essays" (Bangor, Maine: Q. P. Index), makes a neat volume with its twenty-seven essays, of which two-thirds are biographical, the rest historical. Freeman, Seeley, Goldwin Smith, Hayward, Trollope, Karl Hillebrand, and Karl Blind are

the principal foreign authors levied upon, besides some half dozen American. The range is extensive, but, with the exception of the essay on Cleopatra, modern. We are glad to observe that the type, like Dr. Holmes's Utopian berries, "grows bigger downwards" in the series.—Another useful serial completed last month its first volume: we refer to the Monthly Reference Lists issued by the Providence Public Library. The table of contents shows that bibliographical aid has been given not only in respect to current topics like the cession of Dulcigno, the revision of the Bible, comets, the French in Tunis, the centenary of Kant, the Fair-Trade movement, Yorktown, the inter-oceanic canal, Carlyle, and Dean Stanley, but in respect to biographical, historical, scientific, literary, and critical subjects of permanent interest. The lists will be published during the present year for \$1 00 per annum in advance. They are adapted to any locality which contains a public library.—Beebe's 'Four-Place Tables' (New Haven: H. H. Peck) contains in a handy, even vest-pocket form, without sacrifice of clearness, the trigonometric functions, both natural and logarithmic, at intervals of ten minutes, with differences, and also the logarithms of numbers with their proportional parts. Four-place tables are sufficiently accurate for the solution of the great majority of practical problems, and this book, made with special reference to the convenience of students in their recitations and examinations, also forms an excellent introduction to Vega's seven and Gauss's five-place tables, inasmuch as it follows in all respects the arrangement of these standard works.—The December number of *Le Livre* (J. W. Bouton) contains interesting papers on the society of fifty known as "Les Amis des Livres," and on another smaller body of bibliophiles who maintain "Le Diner des Spartiates." There is also a tribute on the literary side to the late collector, Baron James Édouard de Rothschild, with a portrait. The illustration *par excellence* is a likeness in blue of Voltaire. *Le Livre* states that the third volume of the Comte de Paris's History of our Civil War will appear shortly.

—"The librarian who reads is lost," we are told. What is to be said of librarians who write? Catalogues, of course, are expected from them. Systems of classification even, such as Mr. F. B. Perkins, of the San Francisco Public Library, has just published, are not out of the way. But Mr. Perkins's literary activity has not always been so much in the line of his profession. Several English librarians are authors, among others Mr. E. B. Nicholson, of the London Institution ('The Rights of an Animal: a New Essay in Ethics,' and 'The Gospel According to the Hebrews'), who has varied his philanthropic and theological authorship by a translation (in the *Academy* of Nov. 25) of Béranger's "Roi d'Yvetot" in the original measure. The officials at the British Museum, with their short hours of service, have ample time for other work, and their names are continually appearing on title-pages. It is enough to mention Emanuel Deutsch, George Smith, Dr. Samuel Birch, Richard Garnett, Russell Martineau, the late principal Librarian, Mr. Jones, and his successor, Sir E. A. Bond. German librarianships are supposed to be mostly sinecures for the benefit of learned authors—"endowments of research," as the English might say, except that in England it is scientific research chiefly that seeks endowment, and in Germany historical and philological work is more favored. France can show a long list of author-librarians, but their works have been to a considerable extent bibliographical in character. On this side the water, Harvard College Library alone has furnished in forty years Harris's 'Insects Injurious to

Vegetation,' Sibley's 'Harvard Graduates,' Abbot's edition of Smith's 'Bible Dictionary,' Fiske's 'Essays,' Scudder's 'Butterflies,' and Winsor's 'History of Boston.' The American Almanac of the Librarian of Congress is well known, and we were led into this survey of bibliothecarian writers by a pamphlet of his lately published by the Maryland Historical Society on 'The Founding of Washington City, with some considerations on the origin of cities and the location of national capitals,' which begins with some interesting statistics relating to the hypsometry of cities, but is mainly devoted to an abstract of the Congressional debate on the selection of the District of Columbia, and to the retrocession to Virginia and other subsequent action of Congress in regard to the city. Dr. J. H. Trumbull's work on Indian names in Connecticut is but the last of a considerable series of his writings, of the highest authority, of which several are books. Mr. Wm. Hand Browne, of the Johns Hopkins Library, whose excellent manual of English literature was published several years ago, has just given us a translation of Dr. Falke's 'Greece and Rome.' Mr. Wm. F. Poole's historical monographs are well known. The list might doubtless be swelled, and our readers have not forgotten the recent civil-service reform pamphlet prepared by Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Providence Library, nor that on the caucus system which we owe to Mr. J. N. Larned, the head of the Young Men's Library at Buffalo.

—The seventh volume of the Manchester (Eng.) Literary Club consists largely of critical papers. Besides these there are stories and poems, accounts of excursions, and what, for lack of a better term, we may call essays. They are necessarily of various degrees of merit. But the question naturally arises, Why put into this shape writings which if valuable in themselves would be certain to find a place in the periodical press, and, if then deemed worthy of preservation, would be collected into books? The idea of this publication is a good one; but the execution does not strike us as being equal to the plan. Works of this kind, which are destined to take their place on the shelves of libraries, ought not to be filled with essays which can find a lodgment anywhere else, still less with those which cannot. They should include the results of original investigation, or at any rate of useful compilation. Thus a bibliography of George Eliot's writings finds naturally a place in this volume; but the criticisms that follow on George Eliot as poet and as novelist have no reason to show for being included in the same collection. We say this utterly irrespective of the character of the criticisms themselves.

—In putting into print the annual report of its President, Yale College seems to have taken a new departure. The new Freshman Class is, we are told, somewhat smaller than that of the two previous years, while in other and less important colleges the contrary is the case. "Obvious reasons will suggest themselves for both these phenomena. It is hardly proper to suggest or discuss any of these reasons. It is believed however that the guardians of this college may profitably consider some of them." In the first place, there is room for improvement in the instruction given during the first half of the college course. "The general reputation of the College for scientific and literary activity and the presence in its Faculty of men of whom the nation is reasonably proud are no substitutes for the most thorough attention to the drill work of the earlier years, and to the personal culture of the students of the two lower classes." In the next place, when the Corporation have provided teaching merely and nothing else for the Sopho-

mores and Freshmen, they have provided but a fraction of what it is incumbent on them to provide. The culture of the heart, the soul and the body—enthusiasm, diversion, religious fervor and health—remain.

"Whatever can be done to awaken and direct the kindling zeal of those youths who are not ashamed to be called 'college boys,' to vary the burdens and relieve the tedium of their life—whatever can be done to confirm their health, to refine their manners, to awaken their self respect and to stimulate and guide their faith in Duty, in Immortality and in God—not only comes fairly within the scope of the College but becomes a duty which rests upon its guardians."

Without making any specific recommendations in these directions, President Porter proceeds to suggest and discuss another reason why younger colleges attract so many students. "Not a few experiments in College discipline and management are announced in various quarters which promise to relieve students and especially younger students from the sense of constraint and the necessity of constant accountability to monitors and teachers." But this accountability, instead of being an evil, is held by all veterans in college government to be a decided good, and indeed something essential to the formation of character.

"The ease with which in public schools and colleges the plainest axioms of manners and morals are disregarded, and the accepted axioms of courtesy and truth are openly violated by specious casuistry is one of the constant wonders of college life. . . . The true and radical remedy for all these evils, so far as a change in circumstances can furnish any, in our view, is first of all holding the student to his duties as such with no mask or disguise, and next the introduction of as great a variety into the student's life as is practicable—making reasonable provision for attractive amusements and athletic activities."

"Personal care, especially for the two lower classes," is highly desirable, and for this reason additional dormitories should be built, so that Freshmen and Sophomores may not be compelled to take rooms in families.

"The moral and religious condition of the College has been as good as in former years. The manners of the students at the Chapel exercises have very steadily improved within the last few years." "The attendance was never more full, the behavior never more decorous, and the satisfaction with the arrangement [compulsory attendance at prayers and on Sunday] never more complete than at the present time. We should as soon think of abandoning compulsory attendance at the literary exercises as at the prescribed religious services." "It can neither be expected nor desired that they [the students] should not be more or less affected by the speculative and critical doubts which pervade the atmosphere of modern culture, but we are gratified to know that the majority of them are not disposed to form their opinions on these subjects without earnest and candid inquiry. . . . We do not meddle with their [our instructors'] temporary or permanent scepticisms. But we do require that no influences or instructions in any unchristian direction shall be allowed, whether directly or indirectly, and we expect that the public will hold us severely to this as our duty."

"The health of our students has for several years been exceptionally good. . . . The most serious foes to health are late hours, late suppers, insufficient clothing, and imprudent exposures to heat and dampness and cold. . . . The provisions for heating so many of our public and private apartments by steam is, and has proved to be, an important security against disease. The interest in athletic sports is, on the whole, an advantage to health and morals and good manners."

—Money for a physical laboratory has been promised, but the college still needs a new building for recitations, new dormitories for the two lower classes, increase of endowments for existing professorships, and additional funds for poor students and for scholarships assigned upon examination. "The Sheffield Scientific School is more prosperous than at any previous period. . . . Its thorough disciplinary work has been

so recently characterized that I have no need to repeat what has been said already." The Theological Department has received from an old benefactor a new library-building.

"The apartments formerly devoted to the library will be applied to other important uses, and the two other constant friends of the Library have transferred their interest in the first apartment to the new. . . . We are not here called on to explain and defend the arrangement after which all theological seminaries in this country are managed. [This seems to allude to a thesis advanced in one of President Eliot's recent reports, viz., that theological training offered at the present low rates tempts lazy and stupid young men to seek a livelihood in the ministry.] No other at present seems to be practicable. If a wise discrimination is exercised by the guardians of these seminaries there is little danger of abuse. The fruits of the beneficiary system have justified all the labor and money that have been bestowed in helping candidates for the ministry to a thorough education. We find abundant occasion to honor the professors in our own Seminary for their self-denying and partially paid labors and to congratulate them on the learned and practical character of their labors to the Christian, the catholic and the missionary spirit of the students."

The Medical School "needs for its success that the incumbents of the Chairs of Physiology, Chemistry, Histology and Pathology should be released from the duties of medical practice and be able to devote themselves entirely to research and instruction." The Law School, the School of Fine Arts, and the Peabody Museum are in a prosperous condition. As for the Observatory, President Porter expresses the hope and belief "that it will soon be developed into new forms of activity and take that place in respect to astronomical research and observation which the rank of the University requires." The treasury of the University has actually had paid into it, in the way of gifts, during the past year, the very considerable sum of \$335,000.

—The slow but solid growth of the sentiment favorable to, and solicitous for, the overthrow of the spoils system furnishes instructive points of contrast to the progress of the anti-slavery agitation, the temperance and kindred reforms. No man of marked power has yet arisen to lay aside all other earthly objects, and, courting neither notoriety nor applause, devote himself to enlightening the public upon the nature and magnitude of the evil, and denouncing in trumpet tones an hour's toleration of it. Probably we shall never see him. The temper of our time is adverse to moral and religious fervor; the remedy is not simple, like immediate emancipation by the slaveholder or total abstinence by the drunkard; and whatever political penalties have, until lately, been visited upon the civil-service reformer, he is exempt from the social odium which was at once the spur and the consolation of the ardent champion of unpopular ideas half a century ago. He has, moreover, resources in an independent press unknown then, and his cause is such as to call for less self-sacrifice and abstraction. He cannot, however, dispense with organization, the lack of which, for example, up to the year 1832, rendered all the anti-slavery sentiment of the country unavailable and futile. This, as our readers well know, has within the past three years changed the aspect of the opposition to patronage and the Machine, and given every thoughtful man an assurance of its ultimate and not distant triumph. The Boston and Cambridge associations began last year the publication of a broadside called the *Civil-Service Record*, of which the sixth number in this form bore date of October 22, 1881. The contents of this periodical were both original and selected, and the blank page invited editorial clipping and reproduction. With the seventh or December number a transformation has taken place. The *Record* now appears as an eight-page

monthly, of the size of the *Nation*, and is sent to subscribers at the nominal price of twenty-five cents per annum. The heading still contains the testimony of the late President against "the present system." On the first page Governor Long, of Massachusetts, manifests his adherence to the reform doctrine and measures, and the rest of the paper is occupied with articles and news in the same sense, and with cheering signs of the political influence of the civil-service reform organizations in various States. Thus the whole Rhode Island delegation, even to Senator Anthony, who was willing to unseat Secretary Burch in order to replace Gorham, is practically pledged to support the Pendleton Bill. The *Record* may be obtained by addressing Mr. William Simes, Treasurer, Box 3084, Boston, and a cheaper and more effective method of disseminating principles which it will soon become fashionable to avow, we do not know.

—The late Dr. John W. Draper, whose death occurred at Hastings on Wednesday week, anticipated the judgment of his compeers by issuing three years ago a volume of 'Scientific Memoirs.' In this collection of papers, as we pointed out at the time, it was easy to see "a disposition to show the scientific reader that one of the pioneers in the experimental study of the radiation of heat and light has been strangely overlooked." He preceded Kirchhoff in stating and attacking the problem of spectrum analysis, but missed the discovery which would have guaranteed his fame; he first used the daguerreotype process for taking portraits; he made the first photograph of a celestial object ever known to have been taken, and these are but a small part of his achievements. He was, however, a somewhat solitary worker, and in his publications sought reputation abroad rather than at home. His native country was indeed England, but he obtained his degree of Doctor of Medicine from the University of Pennsylvania in 1836, and almost immediately occupied, at the Hampden-Sidney College in Virginia, the professorship of chemistry, and began his experiments. Three years later he became permanently connected, as a professor, with the University of the City of New York. The breadth of his intellectual powers was shown in some ambitious works undertaken in quite different fields. His 'History of the Intellectual Development of Europe,' and 'History of the American Civil War' stamped him as an original and philosophic thinker, with a marked capacity for generalization; yet neither brought him the distinction for which he probably looked, and which he felt he deserved, though the former was translated into several European languages. Dr. Draper's sons have already added to the scientific lustre of his name.

—Mr. Richard H. Dana, who died in Rome last week, was better known in the latter part of his life as a lawyer and through his connection with public affairs than as a literary man, but his earliest distinction was gained as a man of letters. His 'Two Years Before the Mast' is one of the most entertaining narratives of the kind in the language; indeed, it may be said to stand almost alone. Men of education and refinement usually make their acquaintance with the ocean in a less practical way, and a literary man's opportunities to acquire materials for describing life before the mast as sailors themselves know it are very rare. The fore-castle has been generally studied and written about from the quarter-deck, and it is safe to assume that the quarter-deck has made a good many mistakes in the process. Mr. Dana for two years lived a seaman's life, and, having a remarkable power of observation and description, preserved a record of his adventures which will probably maintain its hold on the

public as long as sea life and sea adventure and travel in strange countries retain their hold on the imagination. It is not far from fifty years since Mr. Dana, then a young man just grown up, made his voyage to California, and his account of it is all the more valuable now because such voyages already belong to the past. His ambition, however, was not literary, and his life was mainly devoted to the law, for certain departments of which he had a great aptitude. A good memory and a power of clear and accurate statement are enough to ensure success at the bar, and besides having both these to a remarkable degree, he possessed a rhetorical ability of no mean order. In his day the art of oratory was held in high esteem in New England, and the public men of Massachusetts were all more or less "finished speakers." There is nothing that passes away more completely than a fashion in oratory, unless it be a fashion in acting, and in a very few years it will be left to guesswork and vague tradition to preserve the memory of what was once a remarkable local school of public speaking. Mr. Dana, while he lived, was a connecting link between the rhetoric of our day and the classical period represented best, perhaps, by the frigid classicism of Everett. Webster and Choate profited by the existence of the school, but they were both geniuses, and cannot be reckoned among its products. Mr. Dana outlived the taste which made the school possible, and in his later days he could hardly be said to be successful as a public speaker. The ordinary audience, especially the ordinary accidental political audience, such as gathered to hear him in his canvass with Butler, found him too artificial and tainted with "dignity." Indeed, Butler, who, with the cunning of a true demagogue, succeeded in making the constituency imagine the contest to be between the people on one side and a haughty aristocrat on the other, was partly enabled to do so by the aid of Mr. Dana's rhetoric, which was a little too much that of a "gentleman of the old school" to be useful on the stump.

—Mr. Dana's name is connected with many well-known civil and criminal cases—the Shadrach and Burns slave cases, and the prize cases in the Supreme Court being perhaps the most important. He was also United States District Attorney in Boston from 1861 to 1866. His familiarity with questions of public law led, after the close of the war, to his preparation of an edition of 'Wheaton's International Law,' which proved a most unfortunate undertaking for him. The previous editions had been brought out by Mr. William Beach Lawrence, and on the publication of Mr. Dana's Wheaton he brought a suit against his successor for infringing his copyright. A long litigation ensued, and though Mr. Dana's character and standing made the suggestion of intentional plagiarism an absurdity, the charge of infringement was sustained. The explanation of this curious piece of ill luck commonly accepted among lawyers was, we believe, the great difficulty of stating legal propositions advanced by previous writers in original language. The words used become an essential part of the expression of the idea, and every new writer who goes over the ground is forced to expose himself to the charge of plagiarism, since he cannot always vary the phraseology. Anybody who will take the trouble to go over two or three of the newest law-books on any given subject, and compare a few pages of them critically with a classical work on the same topic, will have his eyes opened to the widespread possibilities of innocent plagiarism which legal literary production affords. In 1876 Mr. Dana was nominated as Minister to England to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of General Schenck. He was eminently fitted for the position, but

his suit with Mr. Lawrence was used by his enemies to defeat his confirmation. He did everything that he undertook well, and in private life his talents and accomplishments were very marked. He was an admirable storyteller, and an adept in the now pretty nearly lost art of conversation; and conversation, as it was practised by our fathers and grandfathers, was a fine thing in its way, however superior we may find the easy-going "talk" that has taken its place in our day.

—One of the innovations introduced at the Wagner Festival at Bayreuth in 1876 consisted in the lowering during the performance of all the lights in the auditorium, so that the audience sat in comparative darkness. The principal object in doing so was to prevent the reading of the text-books, which constantly distracts the attention from the proceedings on the stage, and spoils the illusion. That this could be done with comparative impunity at Bayreuth was due to the fact that the vocalists had been selected with especial regard to their dramatic endowments, first among which is a distinct articulation. In the ordinary German opera-house it will still be found that a majority of the audience follow the performance of a Wagner music-drama with text-book in hand, so as not to miss the sense of gratification at the close correspondence everywhere between the words and the music. In Italian operas there is no such correspondence, the libretto being merely the peg on which the melodies are hung. If the small boy, nevertheless, finds it profitable to sell Italian-English libretti on the street and in the lobby of the opera-house, it is because many buy these little books for the sake of the synopsis of the plot which is usually contained in them, while few take the trouble to endeavor to follow the absurdly naïve words that underlie the songs. Under these circumstances nothing would seem more desirable, both for the sake of economy and convenience, than a small volume containing short synopses of the most popular operas, which could be read over before leaving one's house, thus refreshing the memory in regard to plots which the woefully inadequate acting of most Italian singers generally leaves in the densest obscurity. An operative *vade-mecum* of this sort was published a few years ago by Boosey in London, edited by A. S. Gatty, and another has now been issued by "Notelrac," under the title, 'Operas: their Writers and their Plots' (Lippincott). Gatty's is the more comprehensive of the two, as it is intended to include all the operas habitually performed in England, while "Notelrac's" embraces "the operas now in use upon our American stage." So far as this latter volume goes, it seems to be well done and accurate throughout. Its shortcomings are an excessive brevity in some cases, and the omission of several operas, such as "Fidelio," "Hamlet," and "The Flying Dutchman," which have been heard in this country, and may be heard again any season. These might have been advantageously substituted for "Un Ballo in Maschera" and "Il Poliuto." The operas of each composer are preceded by brief biographical sketches.

—If the third concert of the Symphony Society had taken place two weeks later, it might have been supposed that the occasion had been chosen to celebrate the fortieth birthday of the opening piece—Mendelssohn's Scotch Symphony. Many of Mendelssohn's compositions have lost their freshness—notably his Songs without Words, of which the majority are flavored with a molasses-candy sweetness that soon cloy the appetite. But of those of his compositions which have stood the test of time and the changes in musical taste the Scotch Symphony is a good example. It is

one of the few fortunate works which were enthusiastically applauded at their first appearance and are equally sure of the appreciation of a cosmopolitan audience a century later. Dr. Damrosch conducted this work with an excellent appreciation of the author's intentions, and the result was a performance which, in delicacy and expression, left nothing to be desired. In the rendering of the last piece the orchestra was equally good. The fiery, stirring rhythms of Liszt's symphonic poem, "The Battle of the Huns," were brought out with great emphasis by the brass, while the strings and the organ furnished that striking contrast between the Christian spirit and Asiatic ferocity which helps to make this one of Liszt's most popular compositions, to judge from the applause it always receives. The poem was suggested by Kaulbach's picture of the same name, and is such a genuine inspiration, and so admirably reflects the spirit of that painting, that one can only wish that some of our modern composers would spend more of their time in picture-galleries. The scene from Wagner's "Siegfried"—"Waldweben"—which formed the only other orchestral selection, was not so satisfactorily played, so that the audience endeavored to have it repeated. The scene represents *Siegfried*, under a large tree in the forest, listening to the rustling of the leaves and the song of the bird which tells him where he can find *Brünnhilde*. The movement of the violins is so peculiar and novel, and the rhythm of the bird-song so free and quaint, that the proper effect is not easily obtained. To be more definite, we mean that the violins did not quite succeed in making their instruments whisper and blend in such a manner as to convert their notes into one general confused impression, as in the rustling of forest leaves. In the last bars of Berlioz's duo nocturne from "Beatrice and Benedict" the orchestra also failed to reveal the full charm of subdued color which at a previous performance had so vividly suggested the lingering traces of a gorgeous sunset. The vocal parts were sung by Miss Hattie L. Simms, who confirmed the good impression recently made in the "Messiah," and Mrs. Belle Cole. Miss Simms also sang with a firm, pure tone and correct expression one of Beethoven's songs, "Der Wachtelschlag." Beethoven, the great symphonist, is as a song writer far inferior to Schubert, Schumann, Robert Franz, and Rubinstein, his "Adelaide" being perhaps the only one of his songs that would deserve being bound in the same volume with Schubert's "Ausgewählte Lieder." "Der Wachtelschlag" is not even one of his best songs, and we can only wonder at the choice of such an empty piece for such an occasion. The orchestral accompaniment did not improve the quality of the piece at all, but rather injured it, just as at a previous concert of the society "Adelaide" was spoiled by the dethronement of the piano and the incorrect phrasing of Campanini.

—The Princess de Lesignano has had printed at Brussels 'Les Constitutions de tous les pays civilisés,' collected, arranged, and annotated by herself. It is a large volume, magnificently printed, and adorned with the portraits of the sovereigns who have granted the constitutions and of the authoress herself. Copies have been presented to all the public libraries in France, and probably to all the crowned heads in Europe and to the Pope. And now comes the Republican *Revue Politique* and cruelly points out that this costly work of a descendant of the Crusaders, in giving as the constitution of the Holy See the famous Syllabus of the 8th of December, 1864, has omitted the anathematical heading of the summary of the chief errors of our age; so that the Pope is represented as declaring that—

"ART. 1. There is no Supreme, Divine Being, perfect in his wisdom and his providence, distinct from this material universe. . . .

"ART. 5. Divine revelation is imperfect. . . .

"ART. 6. The Christian faith is contrary to human reason. . . .

"ART. 7. The prophecies and the miracles recounted in the Holy Scriptures are poets' fables. . . .

"ART. 64. The violation of the most sacred oaths, the most criminal and shameful actions, and those most opposed to the eternal law, are not only not blamable, but on the contrary are entirely lawful and worthy of the greatest praise, when they are done for the love of one's country. . . .

"ART. 65. It is by no means proved that Christ has raised marriage to the dignity of a sacrament."

Such is the bitterness of party feeling now in France, and such is the folly of mankind, that no doubt many an extreme Republican will hear of this with the keenest pleasure, and feel as if he had a new justification for his dislike of the Church; and many of the *cléricaux* or the *dévoles* will be filled with bitter mortification at what is after all very likely only the blunder of a foreman in making up his pages. No doubt "cancels" will be forwarded by express to the libraries and the royal recipients, and the few copies that have got into irreverent hands and are suffered to preserve their "blasphemy" intact will take rank with the "vinegar" and the "breeches" Bibles, and that other which gives the Seventh Commandment as, "Thou shalt commit adultery," and when sold hereafter, at the Hôtel Druot will bring fabulous prices. Bibliophiles have feared that by the gradual drifting of rare books into public libraries the market would be depleted—their occupation gone. It appears that the production still continues, not, however, we fear, in proportion to the demand. The few copies of the "Constitutions de tous les pays" will do little toward satisfying the appetite which the late Sunderland sale shows to be greater than ever.

—The recent International Oriental Congress at Berlin, in its Semitic section, adopted a resolution expressive of its wish to see published the collection of photographs of eminent Persian monuments and inscriptions taken by Dr. Stolze in 1878, just before his return to Europe. The publication is now announced by A. Asher & Co., of Berlin, at the subscription price of one hundred dollars, for two solidly-bound volumes, containing a hundred and fifty largest-folio plates, with accompanying account of the inscriptions by Nöldeke, one of the foremost Semitic scholars of the day. The first volume will present most of the views from Persepolis, the second will add those from Istakhr, Pasargadae, Shahpur, and elsewhere. Both are promised to appear in the course of this year, and the subscription-list is open until the 15th of March. It is much to be hoped that copies enough will be taken in this country to put the work within the reach of scholars and students of antiquity.

ABBOTT'S PRIMITIVE INDUSTRY.

Primitive Industry; or, Illustrations of the Handiwork, in Stone, Bone, and Clay, of the Native Races of the Northern Atlantic Seaboard of America. By Charles C. Abbott, M. D. Salem, Mass.: George A. Bates. 1881.

IN Thoreau's "Journal" for 1859, the following characteristic entry occurs under date of May 2:

"I feel no desire to go to California or Pike's Peak, but I often think at night with inexpressible satisfaction and yearning of the arrow-head-iferous sands of Concord. I have often spent whole afternoons, especially in the spring, pacing back and forth over a sandy field, looking for these relics of a race. This is the gold which our sands yield. The soil of that rocky spot of Simon Brown's land is quite ash-colored (now that the

sod is turned up) from Indian fires, with numerous pieces of coal in it. There is a great deal of this ash-colored soil in the country. We do literally plough up the hearths of a people, and plant in their ashes. The ashes of their fires color much of our soil." (*Atlantic Monthly*, May, 1878, p. 570.)

To many it will be a new conception of Thoreau which is called up by this picture of the lonely transcendentalist "pacing back and forth over a sandy field," looking for arrow-heads; and yet it is entirely in keeping with all we know of his mental habits and style of life. Many a man more matter-of-fact than Thoreau was has "spent whole afternoons" in the same apparently useless employment, moved not by the acquisitiveness of the curiosity-hunter, but by the thought that he is gathering and preserving the "relics of a race." To this large and increasing class of students the author of "Primitive Industry" evidently belongs. As he says in his preface, he lives "in a neighborhood once densely populated by the Indians, as attested by the thousands of stone implements that are scattered over the fields"; and he has elsewhere, from time to time, indicated the nature and extent of the work he has done in this rich archaeological field. Some four years ago he had on record nearly 14,000 specimens gathered from an area of about 1,000 acres; and these accumulations (deposited in the Peabody Museum, Cambridge) have doubtless been largely increased since then.

Of the industrial condition of the "roving" (in distinction from the "village") Indians, ere, it had been touched by the influence of European civilization, a remarkably succinct account has been given by the late Lewis H. Morgan:

"They had developed many useful arts. They possessed the art of striking fire; of making the bow, with the string of sinew, and the arrow-head, both of flint and bone; of making vessels of pottery; of curing and tanning skins; of making moccasins and wearing apparel, together with various implements and utensils of stone, wood, and bone; of rope and net-making from filaments of bark; of finger-weaving, with warp and woof, the same materials into sashes, burden-straps, and other useful fabrics; of basket-making with osier, cane, and splints; of canoe-making—the skin, birch-bark, and dug-out; of constructing timber-frame lodges and skin tents; of shaping stone mauls, hammers, and chisels; of making fish-spears, nets, and bone hooks, implements for athletic games, musical instruments, such as the flute and the drum, weapons, and personal ornaments of shell, bone, and stone." (*North American Review*, October, 1868.)

For the filling up of the outline thus rapidly but accurately sketched, Dr. Abbott's book furnishes abundant materials. There is scarcely a point referred to here which he does not touch upon; and while from the nature of the case his immediate object is to describe the implements which remain—imperishable because of stone—yet the fact that they are implements leads us back to the uses to which they were put; and by degrees the primitive Indian life grows to a vivid picture before the mind of the reader. The volume is thus a valuable addition to the sum of our knowledge of the aboriginal man. As such, it is abundantly worthy of a place beside Colonel C. C. Jones's work on the 'Antiquities of the Southern Indians,' Professor Charles Rau's account of the 'Archæological Collection of the United States National Museum,' and Mr. Evans's elaborate treatise on the 'Ancient Stone Implements, etc., of Great Britain.' Its general resemblance to the last-named work—due allowance being made for the wide difference in the field of research—is very noticeable; and this resemblance is increased by the fact that both works contain at the end chapters on palæolithic implements.

To one who keeps the run of archaeological research and authorship in America, it cannot escape observation that the substance of Dr. Abbott's volume has already appeared in other

forms—first, in various articles in the *American Naturalist* and other periodicals, and again in the Smithsonian Report for 1875, where, under the title of 'The Stone Age in New Jersey,' it occupied 135 pages—to say nothing of the fifty-odd pages of poor woodcuts at the end. We have not instituted a careful comparison between 'The Stone Age' and 'Primitive Industry' (Dr. Abbott would doubtless be glad to have the former work entirely forgotten); but we have gone far enough to perceive how great an improvement the new book is upon the old. It is specially to be regretted that in the new volume the old woodcuts should appear. When published by themselves, they looked sufficiently coarse and rude; but when placed side by side on the same page with those of a somewhat better style (as on pp. 101, 111, 203, 352, 353), the effect is incongruous and disagreeable.

The main title of Dr. Abbott's book suggests the criticism that a more careful classification of the various objects described might very well be made, or, rather, a classification upon a somewhat different basis. The author intimates that herein his method is the result of "following the references of the early writers to the utensils and weapons of the Indians" (p. 2). This simply accounts for the various groups of implements treated of in the successive chapters, such as "grooved axes," "celts, chisels and gouges," "mortars and pestles," etc. But it would have been in keeping with the object of the work, as indicated in its title, to group more definitely by themselves the implements and utensils of industry (with special reference to fishing, hunting, agricultural, and domestic uses); to place in a second group the various weapons of war; to throw together in a third class the various ornamental and ceremonial objects (including pipes), and to place in a fourth class the "tools," such as drills and pecking-stones, with which the other implements were manufactured. On a close examination of the so-called table of contents (which is, however, simply a list of chapter-headings, without any indication of the page on which a chapter begins), we conclude that such a grouping as this must have been in the author's mind; but if it had been brought out more distinctly in the "make-up" of the volume, a certain shapeliness would have been imparted, the picture of aboriginal life would have been more nearly complete, and a greater impressiveness would have been the result. And it would not have interfered with the execution of this plan if the large class of implements finished by chipping or flaking had been separated from all others, and thrown into a group by themselves (of course with proper subdivisions). At the same time, it is important to remember here what is true in every science, that classification is a strictly subjective process, and that it is very easy on the one hand to place together things that differ essentially, and on the other to "make a distinction where no difference exists."

'Primitive Industry' abounds of course in minute details, some of them interesting only to the specialist, others well fitted to catch the attention of the ordinary reader, and place him *en rapport* with the aboriginal life which the author so fondly depicts. We have marked various passages, but can quote only one or two which may be of interest to the general reader.

The migratory character of the Indian tribes, as revealed by the distribution of their stone relics, is well brought out, in the author's very unpretentious way, in the following:

"The frequent wars or wanderings of a community and bartering may have resulted in the commingling of the axes of a multitude of localities, many of them miles distant from each other. It is known, too, that tribes came from long distances to make autumnal visits to our

sea-coast, and, of course, on such journeys they would always be provided with, and frequently lose, as they passed through the State, many specimens of both weapons and domestic implements. The routes taken by the Indians who annually crossed New Jersey, from their homes in the mountains of Pennsylvania, on their autumnal visit to the sea-coast, were well known to the early surveyors of the State; and several of the principal thoroughfares, extending from the Delaware River eastward, are the sites of those trails over which the Indians had been accustomed to pass for unknown centuries. It is in the immediate vicinity of these trails that we still find a great number of the various patterns of stone implements and fragments of pottery, which are largely the traces of those inland communities which passed yearly, by the same path, to their chosen locality on the coast. Year after year they camped at the same spot while en route, and left imperishable traces of their sojourn by the sea, in the well-known Indian shell-heaps" (p. 16).

At various points in the volume there are interesting accounts of "deposits" which have been discovered, especially in New Jersey, which seems to be peculiarly rich in archaeological treasures. Take for example the following:

"In one case, in digging a cellar in Trenton, N. J., one hundred and twenty [axes] were found, 'all closely huddled together,' as described by the man who found them. They were about three feet below the surface, and a foot deep in the gravel underlying the soil. They were surrounded by, and entirely covered with, a bright brick-red powder. Again, in digging the receiving vault of the Riverview Cemetery, near Trenton, a bushel basketful of these axes was found, packed closely together, six feet deep in the ground. . . . In another case, fifty porphyry celts were found. These appeared to have been carefully deposited, and not thrown pell-mell into the hole dug to contain them. In all such cases of deposits of either axes or celts, there has been no commingling of a number of forms of implements, nor any trace of fire. The inference, judging from the conditions under which those in New Jersey were found, is that they have been buried for the purpose of temporarily concealing them." (p. 34).

The bearing of the abundance of relics upon the question of population is not lost sight of:

"In some localities, of several square miles in extent, there have been found from three to five axes in every one hundred acres, and still others are brought to light by the plough. Allowing but one-half of the smaller number to have been left lying in every one hundred acres of the State's area, when abandoned by the Indians, there would remain, for the benefit of archaeologists, the enormous number of 125,000 stone axes. . . . It is quite within reason to believe that one-half that number were left by the resident Indians when they relinquished their territory to the founder of Philadelphia. However incorrect the above estimate of the abundance of axes in New Jersey may be, it is certain that there have been many hundreds gathered in the past, without any apparent diminution of their numbers. Yearly the plough upturns as many as in previous years, and the thoughtful observer who chances to seek for these scattered relics is amazed at their frequent occurrence. Supposing that these grooved axes, except such small examples as were probably toys, were used and owned only by men, does this great abundance of them indicate a larger population than is generally supposed to have existed at any one time? or may we take it as indicative of a smaller community whose occupancy extended over an immense lapse of time? . . . Several early authors mention the fact of the handing down from father to son of the cherished stone axe, to fashion which 'the life of a savage is often insufficient.' This shows that the custom of depositing them in graves was only occasional; and therefore it may be considered that such setting aside of a certain number would not materially affect any calculations based upon their numbers as now found scattered broadcast over the entire area of the State" (pp. 9, 10).

We might in this way go through the volume, picking out significant items or paragraphs of succinct description, calculated to increase the interest of the modern man in his aboriginal predecessor, and revealing at the same time the author's thorough study of his subject. While there are verbal inaccuracies and carelessly constructed sentences in every chapter, there is at the same time on every page evidence of pains-

taking labor and an almost ideal devotion on the part of the writer to his chosen theme. The result is a highly creditable and permanently valuable work—a noteworthy addition to that series of illustrated works on American antiquities which was begun sixty years ago, and has been steadily enlarging ever since. The list is one which by its length suggests a large constituency of readers.

It would be impossible, in a single notice, to follow the author through his detailed descriptions of axes, and hammers, and knives, and drills; of mortars, and pestles, and pots; of agricultural tools; of plummet and net-sinkers; of arrow-points, and spear-heads, and war-clubs; of pipes, and ornaments, and ceremonial objects. These things, and many more, are treated of in a series of twenty-seven chapters, occupying four hundred pages. After this comes a valuable chapter on copper implements, in which it is well remarked that the occurrence of such relics is "interesting in itself, but of no ethnological [and we may add, no chronological] significance." Next comes a chapter on some of the tools used by the Indians in manufacturing their implements—hand-hammers and rubbing-stones; and then the volume broadens out into a dissertation, a very excellent one, upon "flint chips"; a good account of the shell-heaps of the sea-coast and of inland rivers; and lastly, an elaborate discussion of the paleolithic implements found by the author in the gravel of the Delaware River near Trenton.

In regard to the shell-heaps, Dr. Abbott agrees with the late Professor Wyman and Professor Rau, that they afford no such tokens of antiquity, upon exploration, as do the "kitchen-middens" of northern Europe; yet he concludes from certain general considerations relating to these remains—their relative position, extent, etc.—that they suggest a period of occupancy of the Atlantic seaboard which must be measured by thousands of years. In the "open-air workshops," from which large gatherings of flint chippings have been made, he finds additional evidence of the antiquity of the Red man; and from many examinations of the sites and remains of such manufactories he constructs a vivid picture of the aboriginal industry popularly known as arrow-making. The description of one of these workshops, on pages 455 to 459, is well worth reading, as an illustration of the scientific method of research and the popular way of putting things. One of the minor conclusions drawn from the entire discussion, although familiar to students, may be a new discovery to many—namely, that implements chipped from stone "were made by comparatively few persons, who supplied the people of their respective tribes with such implements as they required" (p. 468).

About eighty pages are devoted to a discussion of the paleolithic implements, an amount of space fully justified by the importance of the subject. Dr. Abbott acknowledges frankly that in previous publications he has "probably ascribed too great an antiquity to these implements," having been misled by the chronological data of the geological "Reports"; but he considers them, nevertheless, as proving that man occupied the upper valley of the Delaware when "essentially glacial conditions" existed there. In order that the whole subject may be placed fairly before the inquirer, he is furnished with abundant data (together with illustrations of a dozen specimens) in Dr. Abbott's own chapter, and a strictly geological view in Mr. H. C. Lewis's treatise, in chapter xxxiii., on the "Antiquity and Origin of the Trenton Gravel." The author's conclusion may be summed up as follows: That these remains (the discovery of which *in situ*, let us say in passing, is still debated,

whether past question or not) are of artificial origin; that they belong practically to the glacial period; that they possess, therefore, a very high antiquity (although not so high as at first supposed); and that they probably belonged to a race represented to-day by the Eskimos. At the close Dr. Abbott puts forth the interesting but precarious hypothesis that the Eskimo race is of American, and the Indian race of Asiatic, origin, and so leaves his reader at an open door, looking out upon the broad expanse of prehistoric time.

One of the interesting features of the work is the confirmation of the author's views respecting the uses of implements by references to early writers, such as Kalm, Loskiel, etc. It would have been well to prefix to the volume a slight bibliography, giving some account of these men, and fixing the time at which their visits were made. It would have saved trouble not only to the reader, but to the author. To illustrate: In the middle of the volume, Kalm is introduced as "Peter Kalm, the Swede, who visited New Jersey in the middle of the last century, and has left us an excellent account of the resident tribes and their customs," etc. This is as far along as page 279, although Kalm has been repeatedly mentioned on previous pages. Another Swedish author, more frequently quoted than any other of his authorities, unfortunately appears in every instance as "Holm." We supposed it was by this time generally understood that "Thomas Campanius Holm," on the title-page of Du Ponceau's translation, meant Campanius of Stockholm. There are various other errors which a careful proof-reading ought to have excluded. The obsolete form "doubtless" constantly occurs instead of "doubtless"; and such mistakes as these are met with: "Three divisions, each antedating the other" (p. 3); "From the great number of axes already gathered, and that remain to be gathered, it is clear that this form of weapon was in constant use" (p. 9).

JOWETT'S THUCYDIDES.—II.

Thucydides. Translated into English, with Introduction, Marginal Analysis, Notes, and Indices, by B. Jowett, M.A., Master of Balliol College, Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Oxford, etc. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

"WHAT are all the Roman historians to the great Athenian? I do assure you that there is no prose composition in the world, not even the 'De Corona,' which I place as high as the seventh book of Thucydides. It is the *ne plus ultra* of human art. I was delighted to find in Gray's letters the other day to Wharton, 'the retreat from Syracuse—is it, or is it not, the finest thing you ever read in your life!'

"Most people read all the Greek that they ever read before they are five and twenty. . . . Accordingly, almost all their ideas of Greek literature are ideas formed while they were still very young. A young man, whatever his genius may be, is no judge of such a writer as Thucydides. I had no high opinion of him ten years ago. I have now been reading him with a mind accustomed to historical researches and to political affairs; and I am astonished at my own former blindness, and at his greatness."

Will the crowd of readers to whom Prof. Jowett has revealed Thucydides enter into the language in which Macaulay expresses his just enthusiasm for the "greatest historian that ever lived"? We doubt it. The thousands who have devoured Macaulay's own 'History of England' like a new novel will find it a task of difficulty to realize the charm of his idol. The retreat from Syracuse, the analysis of the revolutionary movement at Corcyra, or the funeral oration of Pericles, will, it may be hoped, make even dull readers feel that Thucydides was a master of the historical art. But whoever expects to find in the pages of the Athenian writer reading which

is at once easy and brilliant, instructive and entertaining, is certain to meet with disappointment. The very beauties of classical writers are all but inconsistent with the diffuse and popular mode of narrative to which the present generation are accustomed, and among classical writers Thucydides is less suited than many others to entertain the general reader. Herodotus, Plutarch, Livy, Tacitus are each (though in very different ways) far more likely to catch popular taste than is the Athenian exile. Moreover, Macaulay's eulogies, true and well-founded as they are, may possibly lead students away from the true point of view whence to appreciate the genius of Thucydides.

Macaulay's admiration is kindled mainly by those qualities which the Englishman and the Grecian had in common—capacity for impressive narration, and experience in political affairs. In each of these qualities Thucydides, it is true, excelled, but they do not constitute the essential note of his genius. Historians may be roughly divided into two classes: they are either narrators or critics. The one body make it their main aim to draw a picture of the past, the other make it their main object to explain the causes of past events. The one class (among whom Macaulay himself would always occupy a high place) are essentially painters; the other class are essentially men of science. The extraordinary glory of Thucydides is that, endowed with unrivalled powers of narrative, he was also the first, and still remains the greatest, of critical or scientific historians. His story of the retreat from Syracuse will rank for ever among the immortal monuments of Greek art; but as an artist he has rivals, though he has no superior. As the inventor of genuine historical criticism and systematic historical research, he has stood so completely alone that we may well doubt whether among the ancients the true nature of his greatness was ever thoroughly understood. Modern science (we have been told by competent judges) establishes that Hippocrates was centuries beyond his age in genuine knowledge of medicine, or rather in knowledge of the way in which the art of healing should be studied. Modern conceptions of historical study have for the first time made men feel that Thucydides was as much before his age, or rather before the ages which followed him, as was his contemporary, the great physician. Each, in fact, represented the astounding advance made by Greek genius, in the days of its first freshness and its unexhausted strength, along paths of investigation which were ultimately left almost unexplored by the leading spirits of the classical world. If Thucydides is to be truly understood, he must be looked upon mainly as the first thinker who treated the history of man as a branch of knowledge, presenting not so much tales to be told with all the arts of literary grace as problems to be solved by all the means of rational thought and of careful investigation. At a time when the words "science" and "scientific" are constantly used so as to conceal looseness of thought under a pretentious show of accurate language, one is almost afraid to call Thucydides scientific lest one should simply stimulate the pernicious taste for "tall talk." The term, however, so completely suits the facts that it is hard to find a better, and the best service which reviewers can render to readers is to point out examples, lying on the very front of Thucydides' narrative, of his keen appreciation of what would now be called the science of history.

Thucydides, in the first twenty-three chapters of his work, sets forth indirectly, but none the less distinctly, his whole historical method; and students who read these chapters with care may easily convince themselves that the Athenian

writer had mastered all the essential principles of investigation. He perceives, in the first place, what thousands of theorists have forgotten, that the study of history is at bottom merely the collection of facts and the examination into evidence. Hence his introductory chapters point with clearness to the true source of error as to the events of the past—namely, the credulity of mankind, who "do not discriminate, and are too ready to receive ancient traditions about their own as well as about other countries," and the indolent carelessness which makes "men take so little trouble in the search after truth, and so readily accept whatever comes first to hand." Aware of the true causes of error, he lays down the mode of proceeding by which he attempted to avoid or minimize mistakes:

"As to the speeches which were made either before or during the war, it was hard for me, and for others who reported them to me, to recollect the exact words. I have therefore put into the mouth of each speaker the sentiments proper to the occasion, expressed as I thought he would be likely to express them, while at the same time I endeavored, as nearly as I could, to give the general purport of what was actually said. Of the events of the war I have not ventured to speak from any chance information, nor according to any notion of my own; I have described nothing but what I either saw myself, or learned from others of whom I made the most careful and particular inquiry. The task was a laborious one, because eye-witnesses of the same occurrences gave different accounts of them, as they remembered or were interested in the actions of one side or the other."

This passage has been frequently quoted, but it is hardly possible for any one wishing to appreciate the high standard of historical truth set up by Thucydides to meditate too often on the words we have cited. Neither Livy, nor Plutarch, nor Tacitus, nor, indeed, any Greek or Roman author, has exhibited anything like the same desire to make his narrative correspond with actual fact. We may, indeed, go a great deal further than this, and safely assert that down to quite modern times historians did not attain to the conception of historical accuracy proposed to himself by Thucydides. The notion that a writer should not, so to speak, "improve" his narrative, and in fact treat history as a branch of moral rhetoric, is more or less a modern conception; and among authors who would now acknowledge that the method of Thucydides is the only true and justifiable mode of narrative, there are few who rigidly adhere in fact to principles which they own to be theoretically valid. The names, at least, of Froide, Lamartine, and Thiers suggest that even in the nineteenth century authors of great talent may be content to write mere "prize compositions," and cannot boast that they have never written "according to any notions of their own."

In the second place, Thucydides has clearly discovered the use of that "comparative method" which is often treated as something like a modern invention. He sees, that is to say, that the condition of more or less uncivilized races, or the surviving customs of earlier times, throw a distinct light upon the early history of what were in his day the civilized countries of the world. Thus, he points out that the unsettled condition of early Greece

"is proved by the practice of certain tribes on the mainland who, to the present day, glory in piratical exploits, and by the witness of the ancient poets, in whose verses the question is invariably asked of newly-arrived voyagers whether they are pirates; which implies that neither those who are questioned disclaim, nor those who are interested in knowing censure, the occupation. The land, too, was infested by robbers, and there are parts of Hellas in which the old practices still continue. . . . The fashion of wearing arms among these continental tribes is a relic of their old predatory habits. For in ancient times all the Hellenes carried weapons because their homes were undefended and intr-

course was unsafe; like the Barbarians, they went armed in their every-day life. And the continuance of this custom in certain parts of the country proves that it once prevailed everywhere."

These last words contain the gist of the whole matter. When theorists draw from the condition and the laws of barbarous races, or from "survivals," inferences as to the past condition, say, of early England, or it may be of early Rome, they simply apply with more or less ingenuity to newly-noticed facts the canon that the continuance of a custom in certain parts of the world tends to prove that it once prevailed everywhere. Our latest investigators into the past have before them a far wider field of experience and of knowledge than that which opened itself to the gaze of Thucydides, but they have not advanced a step beyond his principles of historical comparison.

Thucydides, thirdly, from his use of the comparative method, shows, what is indeed apparent from other features in his work, his perception of the identity (or one should rather say similarity) of human nature among different races and peoples. This is the most extraordinary mark of his profound originality. All the principles, beliefs, and sentiments in which we are educated tend to impress upon us the unity of the human race. In this respect religious belief in the descent of all mankind from common parents has aided and facilitated scientific speculation; for it has made it easy for modern theorists to accept the fact that the condition of races in different stages of civilization throws light on the steps by which the civilization of the most civilized countries has been developed. There was, on the other hand, nothing except the insight of genius to suggest to an ancient Greek that all mankind were so united together that the state of uncivilized races illustrated, or might illustrate, the history of the Hellenic race. This perception of something which may almost be described as the unity of mankind, or at least the universal influence among all men and among all races of the same principles of action and of feeling, is closely connected with the constant attempt on the part of Thucydides to refer all events to "the order of human things"—or, to use modern expressions, to the laws of human nature. Happily, in his time the much-abused term "law" had not come into use as describing a real or supposed principle of science; but no human being can doubt that the whole mind of Thucydides was turned toward discovering the laws of history:

"Very likely the strictly historical character of my narrative may be disappointing to the ear. But if he who desires to have before his eyes a true picture of the events which have happened, and of the like events which may be expected to happen hereafter in the order of human things, shall pronounce what I have written to be useful, then I shall be satisfied."

Here we have, ages before its time, the notion so prevalent in our own day, that from the past you can predict the future, and base a science of history on the knowledge of past events combined with an analysis of the motives of human action. How far this attempt to lay down historical laws will ever be practically successful, is a matter on which dogmatists of rival schools pronounce contradictory judgments with equal confidence. Sensible men will long, probably, prefer to leave the speculative question whether history can be made into a science unanswered, and at the same time to welcome with gratitude any plausible historical generalizations which can be shown, at any rate, not to be at variance with known facts. The one thing, however, which is certain is, that the only chance of giving any certainty to general historical conclusions is, that inquirers should enter upon historical investigations with the absolute

calmness and impartiality which befits men whose sole object is the acquisition of knowledge. As regards this attitude of impartial indifference, Thucydides is assuredly the most scientific of all historical writers. To inquire, to know, and to present to the world the results of his knowledge appears, as far as modern readers can judge, to have been the sole aim and reward of his labors. To assert that he has been perfectly fair in his judgments or statements is, of course, absolutely impossible: you cannot, though men as able as Mr. Grote have attempted to do so, correct the assertions of your sole witness. But a critic will hardly go far wrong who assumes that in the main Thucydides preserved the attitude of a calm scientific observer. It is difficult to say whether his sympathies, if any, were really with Athens or with Sparta. If it were not for the funeral oration of Pericles, which is in reality a eulogy of Athenian freedom in contrast with the dull severity of Spartan discipline, one might suspect that Thucydides inclined to the view that the cause of the Lacedæmonians was, so to speak, the cause if not of justice yet of order, and that he looked upon that cause with something like the approval with which, toward the beginning of this century, all respectable persons regarded the opponents of revolutionary principles.

But, in truth, such conjectures are utterly vain. Thucydides remains for ever the model of the passionless historian. He analyzes the horrors of the Corcyrean reign of terror as calmly as he analyzes the symptoms of the plague at Athens. It is hardly possible to discover a trace of moral blame, or of moral eulogy, throughout his pages. Goodness and badness are each facts of human nature. He notes them as facts, and, having done this, has performed the task of scientific narration. Whether this attitude be an attitude which any writer of modern times, imbued with the moral sentiments which are the growth of centuries, can take up, may admit of doubt. What does not admit of doubt is that this attitude of genuine moral indifference is the only position which becomes a theorist who is honestly bent on treating the facts of human nature as simply an object of knowledge. For the science of history, as for every other science, you need the guidance of perfectly "dry light." Your observation must not be distorted by passion or sentiment. It is because Thucydides could bring this passionless analysis of facts to the study of events which had excited passions as violent as those kindled by any revolutionary era, that he not only anticipated historical principles of later ages, but also, in a certain sense, was a more scientific historian than any of the writers who have followed him. He invented a *novum organum* for the study of history which his contemporaries hardly valued, and which later ages have valued without possessing the power to give full effect to its canons.

He is the most solitary genius of the ancient world; and it should be fairly noticed that his fate has been the fate which inevitably befalls men greatly in advance of their age. His speculations assuredly did not guide the historical theories of Greek or Roman writers, nor have his works exerted anything like the influence on the modern world which has been exerted by the books of authors intellectually far his inferiors. Plutarch, Cicero, and Livy have each in different manners profoundly affected the sentiments and even the actions of later generations. They have guided, or have misguided, all the enthusiasts who fancied they could find a democratic Old Testament in the annals of the classical republics. Plutarch has at times been a real power in Europe. The lessons of Thucydides have roused no one's enthusiasm, and have

given instruction only to thinkers here and there, such as Hobbes, who brought to the study of mankind a spirit congenial to the genius of the great Athenian. Nor does the fact of an author being before his age make him preeminently useful to future times. His principles by degrees become admitted, but he is inevitably wanting in the knowledge acquired by the generations who at last appreciate his principles. To modern investigators, a chronicler and traveler such as Herodotus presents information of far greater value than the speculations of Thucydides. Though his genius cannot be understood unless it be recognized as emphatically the genius of a man of science, it is by his art that Thucydides has lived and will live. He has accomplished his object: he has produced a work which "is an everlasting possession, not a prize composition which is heard and forgotten."

AYRES'S VERBALIST.

The Verbalist: A manual devoted to brief discussions of the right and the wrong use of words, etc. By Alfred Ayres. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

Of the many wretched works of this kind which have come under our observation, we are disposed on the whole to give this one the credit or discredit of being the most wretched. Its poorness of execution is made unusually conspicuous by the tone of pretension which runs through it. To prepare properly a work treating of correct usage would be one of the hardest of achievements. It would need not merely the most cultivated literary taste, but also a thorough acquaintance with the origin and history of the language, and the words and grammatical forms and idioms belonging to it; an intimate familiarity, moreover, with the usage of the best writers both in past and present times; and, in addition to all this, a certain degree of general knowledge of the principles of linguistic science, and a certain degree of special knowledge of the tongues allied to our own. As a matter of fact, works of this kind have usually, if not invariably, been written by men who had not the slightest claim to any of these qualifications. The author of this volume is no exception to the rule. He not only lacks the general or special knowledge that is required, he has not even the slightest conception that any such knowledge is required. He has accordingly pitchforked into this volume a lot of crude statements about words and idioms from every author he has come across, who has treated of the subject. Many of the writers he quotes are nearly, if not wholly, as ignorant as himself. Of course it would be impossible to get together such a collection of matter without its containing some things that were true, and a few things that were valuable. But the rubbish in this case immensely exceeds the portion which has any excellence, for if there is anything especially absurd that any one else has said, the author of this volume seems to have had an unerring instinct for getting hold of it and adopting it as his own.

This may seem harsh criticism, yet it is not only true, but it is needed. Books of this kind, compiled by men who have no real knowledge of the subject, are coming to be intolerable nuisances. They misstate facts, they lay down distinctions that do not exist, they teach the ignorant to criticize others without knowledge and to live themselves in mortal terror of their own tongue. We are told, for instance, in this volume, under "done," that "this past participle is often very inelegantly, if not improperly, used thus: 'He did not cry out as some have done against it.'" Of course the impropriety, if there be any, belongs to all parts of the verb *do*, and is not con-

finer, as would be inferred from this extract, to the past participle. Now, the employment of *do* to supply the place of the preceding verb is a usage that goes back to the very beginning of the language. It is as common in the English of the ninth century as it is in that of the nineteenth. It gave rise after the Norman conquest to verb-phrases of the kind represented by "I do love," "I did love," though these inflections were never common till the fifteenth century. There is no writer of repute in any period who has not made use of this so-called impropriety, nor has probably any educated speaker failed to employ it who has spoken the English tongue during the past thousand years. We now learn that it is at any rate inelegant, if not worse. A similar statement may be made of the adverb *no* in the phrase "whether or no," though our limits do not allow us to go into its special history. But the special qualification of the author of this volume for deciding upon its correctness may be inferred from the fact that he calls the adjective *no* in "no grace of diction" an adverb. So, also, we are told that "at length" is often used instead of "at last," as if there were something extremely improper in attributing length to time as well as to space, and as if in good usage the phrase was not as a matter of fact far more often employed in the sense of "at last" than in that of "to the full extent," or "fully."

The author has a good deal to say in denunciation of a supposed prevalent fondness for the use of big words—a fondness which, so far as cultivated men are concerned, exists entirely in the imagination of men who write books like this. At the same time it is hard to find the line he draws. For instance, in the case of *loan* as a verb, we are informed that "it is quite certain that it is only those having a vulgar *penchant* for big words who will prefer it to its synonyme *lend*." There may be objections to the word; but this is certainly a singular reason for not using it. *Loan* and *lend* have each four letters; the former, indeed, could get along comfortably with three. They both come directly from the same Anglo-Saxon verb, *lænan*, "to lend," unless one is disposed to regard the former as coming from the corresponding noun *læn*. Of the two, *loan* is etymologically more correct: for *lend*, instead of being *len*, as it ought to be from the point of view of the purist, assumed in Early English a *d* to which it is not entitled, in consequence of a false analogy with *rend*, *send*, and similar words. This *d* it has since retained without protest, our amateur philologists not having as yet found out the fact of its intrusion. Similarly, we fail to see why *allude* is any bigger word than *refer*. The special signification of the former is breaking down, not on account of its size, but because the distinction conveyed by it is pretty certain to be missed by any one who is not familiar with the Latin primitive from which it came.

But it is not alone with the established idioms and usages of the language that Mr. Ayres wages relentless war. He is equally hostile to individuals—to persons as well as to that particular word. Under *Swash* he exposes Ralph Waldo Emerson in a way that ought to make the admirers of the Concord philosopher hang their heads in shame. Under *Diction* he pounces upon Professor Dwight of Yale College, and shows that reverend theologian how to revise the Bible by revising for him one of his own paragraphs. Under *Amount of Perfection* he lets us know he could tear Matthew Arnold in pieces if he had the mind; the actual performance is doubtless reserved for a future edition. But it is toward Dr. L. T. Townsend, Professor of Sacred Rhetoric in Boston University, that he displays the greatest animos-

ity—why, it is hard to see. The professor has written a treatise on the art of speech which exhibits a good deal of the same miscellaneous misinformation that is to be found in this volume. Emerson's writings assume for their appreciation a certain degree of ability and cultivation on the part of the reader. It is not so with the 'Art of Speech'; and as its author is just as accurate as some of the other authorities quoted in this work, we are at a loss to understand why he should be so persistently attacked.

We have given far more space to this volume than it deserves, because it is a specimen of a class which needs to be suppressed. They may, and do, furnish amusement to students, but they bring little but misery to the half-educated, who are the ones that consult them. Let him who wishes to use his own language properly study its greatest masters, both the living and the dead. What they say he may feel himself justified in saying, no matter how much it may be condemned by grammarians or newspaper correspondents, or those pests of domestic circles who concentrate their linguistic energies on the denunciation of some word or meaning or phrase to which they have taken a dislike, but the origin and history of which they do not make the slightest pretence to know.

SCHOUER'S UNITED STATES UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

History of the United States of America under the Constitution. By James Schouler. Vol. I., 1783-1801. Washington: W. H. & O. H. Morrison. 1880.

WITH all its faults, Hildreth's has as yet kept its place at the head of our general histories of the United States, for our other historians have either copied or exaggerated the faults of Hildreth's method, while they have lacked his multifarious sources of supply or his painstaking completeness in the use of them. He and his imitators have given us beautifully articulated skeletons, every part in its exact place, every incident chronologically correct; but the spark of genius which shall yet make these dry bones live, is not there. He who reads Motley's histories rises at least with a tangible idea of the specific differences of feeling and thought, as well as of action, which distinguished the Dutchman from the Spaniard; but he may read all our histories of the United States without gaining any such living conception of the differences which distinguish the American people of 1870-80 from the American people of 1850-60, of 1820-30, or of 1790-1800. If he reads the declaration of Jay, that a king of the United States might be necessary as a last resort; of Hamilton, that corruption was the most valuable element in the British political system; or of Jefferson, that there was nothing objectionable in "a little rebellion now and then," since blood was "the natural manure of the tree of liberty," he will probably be impressed very much as if they had come from Edmunds, Blaine, or Bayard respectively, and be dumfounded or disgusted accordingly. He will find similar causes producing the most bewilderingly diverse effects at different periods, and will probably take final refuge in the conclusion that American history is, like the Ptolemaic system, a chaotic record of undigestible observations.

There are, however, strong indications that historical realism is soon to evolve the needed history of the United States. Dr. Draper's 'History of the Civil War,' in its introductory chapters, was the first effort to give the reader some clear idea of the life and limitations of the people of our earlier period before narrating their actions as a state; but the space was limited, and the effort can only be regarded as a

first step on the road which our history must finally take. Since its publication, almost every year has been giving us such monographs as Johnston's on the Yorktown campaign, and Draper's on King's Mountain, which are very largely shaped by the same idea. Now, in Mr. Schouler's first volume, we have an attempt to make this principle of realism the foundation upon which a complete history of the United States shall be erected, and to carry the reader into the very centre of events, so that he may not only judge the results from the standpoint of the present, but may realize the moving causes from the standpoint of the past. Mr. Schouler enters in detail into the social and economical life of the people; their recreations; their habits of thought and action; their municipal arrangements; the character and influence of the immigration; the influence of classes and families upon the mass of voters; the difficulties of intercommunication; and the provincial peculiarities of the newspapers and other sources of popular information. And the result is a book which, though very far from perfection, is in many respects the most real history of the United States yet produced for the period which it covers. It would be difficult to show the prevailing tone of the volume without quoting too extensively, but the following extract (*anno* 1789) may serve as an example:

"One must admit that the veneration applause at this period of 'the man who united all hearts' had a modicum of foolish adulation. The tributes paid him in his day were quite often dictated by bad prosers and worse poets. Birthday and procession odes became the favorite doggerel of the day, many of them having that smack of Tate and Brady which bespoke a psalm-singing age. One song began:

'Arrayed in glory bright,
Columbia's saviour comes.'

Another proceeded in like strain:

'His glory shines beyond the skies,
From heaven proceeds.'

With stanzas like these, set to appropriate music, a choir would stand before the President when he appeared upon a public tour, and launch the loud pean at a face which relaxed nothing of its habitual expression of calm serenity. This was an age over which the royal atmosphere still hung. Such ascriptions were heard as 'Long live George Washington!' or 'God bless your reign!' Religious, municipal, and social bodies continually preferred their addresses of congratulation for a gracious acknowledgment. All were obsequious. Indeed, the plain words with which the Quaker selectman of Salem welcomed the President to that town contrasted very strongly with the other speeches made upon his Eastern tour: 'Friend Washington, we are glad to see thee, and in behalf of the inhabitants bid thee a hearty welcome to Salem.'

The period covered by the larger part of this volume (1789-1801) is in many respects the most important in our political history, and he who takes into consideration the shortness of the time must find some reason for wonder in the amount and thoroughness of the work which was done in it. Of no other people can it be said that in a single decade, and that too so early in its national history, it produced a written constitution so exactly suited to the genius of the people that there was no further apparent need for extensive change, except in the abnormal influences of slavery; an exhaustive constitutional commentary, which still stands at the head of works of its kind; a smoothly working national government complete in all its parts—in treasury, state, war, navy, and postal departments; and last, but not least, a plainly marked political line, on which two great parties could safely divide, so as to make permanent constitutional government not only possible, but almost a certainty. All this was secure before 1799. Succeeding generations, finding the work of organization done to their hand, and only the

work of administration left for them, naturally almost apotheosized the founders of the republic. "Inspiration" and "almost divine prescience," instead of plain common sense and political capacity, have been credited with the success of the experiment. The consequence is that the thoughtful political student is as apt to err in the opposite direction, by forming too low an estimate of them. Approaching them as demigods, he finds their human infirmities more glaring; had he approached them as men, he would have been more likely to rate them fairly.

The very permanence of their work, too, has done much to distort our ideas of them. To Jefferson, for example, the individual citizen is indebted for at least one-half of his political stature; but Jefferson was unfortunate in living so near the time of the organization of national government that he could see no *locus standi* for the defence of individual rights except in State sovereignty. There are therefore thousands who know Jefferson as the father of nullification and secession to one who knows him as the father of the democratic idea, to whose steady extension we owe exemption from class and family influence, the public-school system, universal suffrage, the abolition of slavery, national conventions, rotation in office, and countless other dispensations of more or less doubtful advantage, which have grown to seem, to the modern American, as natural as the air. Hildreth gives hardly any personal attention to the actors of the period of which he treats, with the exception of Jefferson; to his portraiture, mental and moral, he returns again and again, and is hardly willing to consider his work finished when its subject has formally retired from politics. Mr. Schouler, on the contrary, has attempted to make the men of the time real to the reader's eye, not lay figures. Hardly any one of importance is mentioned without a few touches of personal description, drawn apparently from the contemporary newspapers; and the characteristics of the leaders, Washington, Hamilton, Jefferson, Adams, and others, are treated minutely and largely. An extract from the dozen pages devoted to Washington will show the minuteness of the descriptions:

"It appears certain that Washington had neither wit nor a sultry humor. He conversed sensibly and well with the guest at table, but a witty sally disturbed him, and to any thrust of ridicule he was keenly sensitive. No *bon mot* is known to have escaped his lips. Young ladies pleased him with their vivacity, and in one or two burlesque scenes on his plantation, which cannot be funnily described, he astonished the household by breaking out into a long and hearty laugh. Otherwise his face, unless he was angry, wore that calm and placid expression of repose with which his pictures make us so familiar. And yet a dry, almost sardonic, sense of humor peeps out of his correspondence in by-places, of a quality still better illustrated, perhaps, by the authenticated instance where he turned sharply upon a little boy who was running after him admiringly from his tailor's, through a retired street of Philadelphia, and, taking off his hat, made him a profound salutation. Unless the ludicrous aspect of the curiosity he everywhere excited sometimes amused the great man, he cannot have been human."

Mr. Schouler's style is sometimes harsh, as the extracts given will show; but his first volume has a higher merit in its exactness, its minuteness, and the realism with which it delineates the persons and places, as well as the events, of our first twelve years of national life.

Encyclopædia Britannica. Ninth edition, vol. xiii. Inf.-Kan. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

A LARGER number of weighty contributions interesting to specialists and scholars will be found in this than in most of the preceding vol-

umes. There are: "Italy," by five writers, including Symonds, Prof. Ascoli, and Prof. Bartoli; "Iron," by Dr. Wright; "Infinitesimal Calculus," by Prof. Williamson; "Ireland," by Henderson, Sullivan, and Bagwell (each of which articles would fill a small octavo volume); extensive articles on "Insanity," "Inscriptions," "Insects," "Insurance," "Japan," "Java," etc.; and numerous essays on Biblical subjects, all remarkable for familiarity with the latest results of inquiry, and some for original research. The biography of the volume is perhaps less rich than that of others, though including lives of Isæus and Isocrates, by Prof. Jebb; Jefferson, by Bigelow; Jenghiz Khan, by Prof. Douglas; Justinian, by Bryce; Juvenal, by Prof. Sellar; Kant, by Prof. Adamson; and Macaulay's "Johnson," a remnant of former editions. Among the more important geographical contributions are Henry Rawlinson's "Ispahan," Col. Yule's "Kafiristan," Capt. Holdich's "Kandahar," and "Jerusalem," by Lieut. Conder and Robertson Smith. The bibliography attached to the longer articles is generally very full and fresh, and marked by great typographical correctness in the foreign titles. Less satisfactory are most of the portions of recent historical interest in geographical articles—a defect particularly striking in a cyclopædia excluding the lives of all living men. Thus, the history of Italy from 1861 to 1881 is quite too "briefly told" in one column, while the work contains no "Garibaldi," no King "Humbert," no "Depretis," etc., and "Victor Emanuel" is still so far off. Under "Kandahar" there is no mention of the battles fought before that town within the last few years, though "Afghanistan" was finished long before they took place, and the work will naturally ignore Gen. Roberts, as living, as it did the present Amir Abdurrahman and his enemy Ayub Khan, and thus probably leave the most interesting portion of recent Afghan history entirely untold.

A worse instance, but fortunately an exceptional one, of ignoring late events is the entering of "Ismail" as still "a town of Roumania," "in accordance with the treaty of Paris (1856), by which that part of Bessarabia in which Ismail was included was made over to Roumania"—though the town and the district were restored to Russia in 1873, in accordance with the treaty of Berlin. "Josephine" is one of the old sketches left unrevised, we presume, in spite of much that is new on the subject in late publications on Napoleon I. and his court. "Inquisition" and "Isabella I." are other samples of inadequate treatment, while "Jackson" ("Stonewall") is a specimen of gross superficiality. In the whole sketch of the Confederate general, only two chronological dates referring to the campaign in Virginia are given, one of them contained in the following: "Jackson's first exploit in the war of secession was the capture, on May 3, 1861, of the Federal arsenal at Harper's Ferry"—a false statement from beginning to end, as Harper's Ferry was evacuated, after the burning of the arsenal, by Lieut. Jones, of the Federal Army, on April 18, 1861, and immediately occupied, without striking a blow, by the Virginia militia, before the secession of that State. Other notices of American subjects are much better, though "Johnson, Andrew," "Johnston, Albert Sidney," and a few more are rather meagre. Hindostan is particularly well represented under geographical titles. The worst omission in European geography is that of Jutland, which is not even entered in a reference to "Denmark." Lack of symmetry strikes one unpleasantly in some of the joint productions, especially in "Inscriptions," of which the Roman division, by Prof. E. Hübner, is exceedingly

learned and comprehensive, while the Semitic, by Prof. Sayce, only rouses the reader's curiosity, without in the least satisfying it, by fugitive statements like this: "The earliest Hebrew inscriptions are three from Siloam, one of which is addressed to 'Baal of the temple,' a fragment found in the streets of Jerusalem by M. Vernes, and a boundary-stone discovered by M. Ganneau near Gezer."

On the whole, however, it is Hebrew subjects that have received the most careful elaboration. The editor of any cyclopædia not specially Biblical might justly be proud of such a series of articles in one volume as is formed here by Prof. Wellhausen's "Israel"; Cheyne's "Isaiah," "Jeremiah," and "Jonah"; Robertson Smith's "Joel" and "Judges"; Davidson's "Job," and Ginsburg's "Kabbalah"—to which may be added the unsigned smaller notices, "Jacob," "Jehovah," "Jephthah," "Joshua," "Judah," etc.—all breathing the same spirit of untrammelled critical investigation. The results are such as the editors of former editions of the "Britannica" would never have thought of popularizing had they been then sufficiently matured. Wellhausen's "Israel" will be exceedingly welcome to all who possess the first volume of that learned author's "Geschichte Israels" (Berlin, 1878)—a volume mainly introductory—and have been so long anxiously waiting for the appearance of the continuation. In the earlier history of the Hebrews he occupies a standpoint fully as radical as Kuennen's, as may be seen from the following:

"If the legislation of the Pentateuch cease as a whole to be regarded as an authentic source for our knowledge of what Moaism was, it becomes a somewhat precarious matter to make any exception in favor of the Decalogue. In particular, the following arguments against its authenticity must be taken into account: (1) According to Ex. xxxiv., the commandments which stood upon the two tables were quite different. (2) The prohibition of images was during the older period quite unknown; Moses himself is said to have made a brazen serpent which down to Hezekiah's time continued to be worshipped at Jerusalem as an image of Jehovah. (3) The essentially and necessarily national character of the older phases of the religion of Jehovah completely disappears in the quite universal code of morals which is given in the Decalogue as the fundamental law of Israel; but the entire series of religious personalities throughout the period of the judges and the kings . . . make it very difficult to believe that the religion of Israel was from the outset one of a specifically moral character. . . . (4) It is extremely doubtful whether the actual monotheism . . . could have formed the foundation of a national religion. It was first developed out of the national religion at the downfall of the nation."

Cheyne and Robertson Smith virtually occupy the same radical standpoint, but their enunciation of critical results is cautiously slow, and almost timid, while Wellhausen's tone is always independent and energetic, and here and there, where much doubt is justified, exasperatingly positive. A diametrically opposite standpoint in religious history, it is hardly necessary to state, is that occupied by Canon Farrar in the article "Jesus Christ."

Cuban Sketches. By James W. Steele. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

MR. STEELE's sketches seem rightly named, in that they are of a free and light texture. It may be that they would have been more pleasing had they merited the designation of sketches at certain particular localities—"sketches on the spot." They are admitted to be the impressions that have abided with the author since his return to this country from the island, where he resided a number of years as a United States Consul. He therefore deals mainly in generalizations.

However, if somewhat wanting in truth to localities, he is not, judged by the sharpness of the characterizations in his light essays, without realism of a larger kind. His study of the Cuban seems to result in confirming what is probably the ordinary view of those enjoying but a slight acquaintance with the subject; which may either show that the author is not a profound investigator, or that the ordinary view is correct. "He [the typical young Cuban] appears to you at first a man all eyes, hair, teeth, and shirt-collar." He is an irreclaimable fop, has a rooted antipathy to labor, and is lacking generally in the positive and manly qualities. In particular the author finds, as other authors have found who have written about the inhabitants of Spanish-American countries, that he has not before him the ideal of "doing as he agrees." Now, there are plenty of us of the Anglo-Saxon race who do not do as we agree, and if a Spanish-American traveller should judge us by such a collection of instances as he might easily gather in a sojourn of moderate extent among us, we should not make an exemplary showing. At the same time, if there be any one virtue more than another that we aspire to cultivate, it is that of fidelity to a word; and to represent a class of people as without it is to give them as bad a character as we know how. The virtue or trait may have its support largely in our commercial necessities as well as in a higher morality, and may perhaps be expected to grow in other communities with the introduction of more extensive commercial dealings than have hitherto prevailed. Mr. Steele writes with a fatigued if not an openly ill-natured air. His opinions of almost everything are very unfavorable. The whole system of things in the island offers material enough for criticism, as everybody who has been there knows; at the same time this writer does not give the impression of looking for the best that is to be seen. He hardly does the scenery justice. He fails to except from his sweeping derogation even such charming bits as are to be found at Chorrera, Marianao, Tulipan, and the like suburban villages of Havana. A person with more of the artistic feeling would have let the bright colors and queer shapes of the place atone to him somewhat for its backwardness in the march of modern ideas. A more ingenious literary man, too, could perhaps have found further material, a little recondite—the poetry and poets of the island, for instance—which would not have been without interest. Mr. Steele has a mild vein of drollery and a quite vivid descriptive talent. His style is carefully elaborated.

Capturing a Locomotive: A History of Secret Service in the late War. By the Rev. William Pittenger. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

This story is founded upon what was unquestionably one of the most remarkable of the minor incidents of the War. About the time of the battle of Shiloh, Mitchel's division of Buell's army was detached to advance from Nashville toward the railroad connecting Memphis with Chattanooga and Richmond. It was then planned to destroy the bridges on the railroad from Chattanooga to Atlanta, thus cutting off the former place from all reinforcements in Georgia and permitting its easy capture by Mitchel. If Mitchel could fortify and hold his position until reinforced, the connection between the eastern and western armies of the Rebels would be completely broken. The destruction of the railroad was entrusted to twenty-four soldiers, under the leadership of J. J. Andrews, a citizen of Kentucky. These men penetrated the Southern lines, in disguise, almost to Atlanta, and at a small station where there was no telegraph-

office they seized a portion of the railway-train while its officials were at breakfast, and ran with it at full speed toward Chattanooga. They were pursued by the conductor and engineer, at first on foot, then in a hand-car, and finally with successive locomotives. But for delays caused by trains running out of the schedule time, it is probable that Andrews would have accomplished his purpose. But these delays at the stations were so great that he was unable to gain a sufficient start to be able to stop and destroy the bridges; his pursuers gained on him so rapidly that he was obliged to abandon the object of his expedition, and simply endeavor to escape. The chase continued for ninety-eight miles, and ended by the breakdown of Andrews's engine, about ten miles south of Chattanooga. Here his party dispersed and sought to regain the Union lines; but they were all captured. Andrews and seven others were hung; the rest were confined in various jails, loaded with chains, and subjected to every possible hardship and indignity, including flogging. Some of them escaped after six months of this torture, and the rest were finally exchanged five months later.

This bold enterprise is well characterized by the Comte de Paris as an example of "the peculiar kind of warfare which served as an interlude to the regular campaigns of the large armies," and as showing "what a handful of daring men could attempt in America." The story has been briefly told several times before; it is to be found in Moore's 'Rebellion Record' and in other publications. The author (one of the survivors) has himself told the story once before, in a book entitled 'Daring and Suffering; or, The Great Railroad Adventure,' which was published in 1863 by J. W. Daughaday, Philadelphia. This publishing house is, we believe, no longer in existence, and the first book is doubtless out of print. In rewriting it the author has retained some of the old illustrations and much of the original text; but he has enlarged and amplified the story, and has told it much better than he did twenty years ago.

The Sun. By C. A. Young, Ph.D., LL.D., Professor of Astronomy in the College of New Jersey. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

AMONG Prof. Young's earliest popular writings on the sun was a little pamphlet published some ten years ago ("University Series," No. 8, New Haven), being the substance of a lecture delivered before the Yale Scientific Club. The present work has fewer points in common with the earlier paper than might be expected: the order of treatment is more logical, and the greatly fuller presentation gives to a mere lecture quite the proper proportion of a compendious treatise. With an author who, like Prof. Young, has so little knowledge of his theme at second hand, we expect precisely that clearness of exposition which is a characteristic feature of this book. His profuseness of verbal illustration is notable, and the pleasing appropriateness of his comparisons is at times striking. What, for instance, could better describe in a word the scope of spectrum analysis than to say that the study of spectra has "added some such reach to our physics and chemistry as the telescope brought to vision"? In his evident anxiety lest the reader should miss his meaning, too many points may have been insisted upon by way of explanation of allied topics; but these are stated in accurate scientific language, and their insertion is probably much less harmful than their omission would have been. Occasionally we come upon the instance of a scientific specialist who is generous enough to devote a portion of his time to the making of a book for the people; but the work itself too often shows how fitful and desul-

tory it was. It was a genuine pleasure to find that so little of this book—if we may judge by its speaking for itself—must have been written in intervals which otherwise would have been unoccupied. The soberest misfortune of the work is that it should have been issued so long after many of the more important portions were put in type. It seems to us hardly worth the while to send out a book which, almost at the moment of its issue, is, in very important points, as good as out of date; and those interested in the success of this book would have done better to apply the remedy of a few new plates—and printed signatures, if need be.

Much the most satisfactory chapters are those on the sun's light and heat, and the summary of facts and discussion of the constitution of the sun. The appendix containing Prof. Langley's account of his bolometric observations will have no little interest, as his method is yet so new, and the conclusions he derives are so remarkable. Most people, surely, are unprepared to be told that if they could see the sun as it really is, they would pronounce it to be blue. The chapters on the solar surface, the sun spots, their periodicity, etc., are excellent. The author's vigor of expression in setting aside (and yet most cautiously) no small number of theories of solar phenomena tends to make conviction sure, and is most characteristic of a man who knows of what he speaks. We should quote, if there were room, his belief as to the cause of the periodicity of the solar spots—that it is in the sun itself; and the outburst is only the necessary relief of the internal fury which is pent up during the gathering of deep-lying forces throughout a season of external quiescence; therefore not necessarily regular, as most maintain, nor likely to repeat itself according to given planetary positions.

The inaccuracies of the book are few. We note, page 43, that the 'British Nautical Almanac' dropped Le Verrier's value of the solar parallax, 8".95, more than three years ago, and has since used Newcomb's value—first in the volume for the year 1882, issued in the autumn of 1878; and that the date of publication of Newcomb's classic on the solar parallax is 1867, not 1865. These, however, are the merest trifles; and of the book as a whole we should say that, from a great mass of recent semi-popular scientific literature, it will give the best return for a careful perusal.

Prof. Young summarizes thus the belief of astronomers as to the constitution of the sun—we cannot forbear quoting it here:

"(1) The central portion is probably for the most part a mass of intensely heated gases. (2) The photosphere is a shell of luminous clouds, formed by the cooling and condensation of the condensable vapors at the surface, where exposed to the cold of outer space. (3) The chromosphere is composed mainly of uncondensable gases (conspicuously hydrogen) left behind by the formation of the photospheric clouds, and bearing something the same relation to them that the oxygen and nitrogen of our own atmosphere do to our own clouds. (4) The corona as yet has received no explanation which commands universal assent. It is certainly truly solar to some extent, and very possibly may be also to some extent meteoric."

And as for the future of solar physics, the fundamental problems now pressing for solution are, "first, a satisfactory explanation of the peculiar law of rotation of the sun's surface; second, an explanation of the periodicity of the spots, and their distribution; third, a determination of the variations in the amount of the solar radiation at different times and different points upon its surface; and fourth, a satisfactory explanation of the relations of the gases and other matters above the photosphere to the sun itself—the problem of the corona and the prominences."

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